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Employee Turnover Intentions of Self-Initiated Expatriates in Healthcare Organisations in the United Arab Emirates

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Employee Turnover Intentions of Self-Initiated Expatriates in Healthcare
Organisations in the United Arab Emirates

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A dissertation submitted for the degree of Ph.D.

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Abstract

Employee turnover is one of the most widely studied concepts in the organisational behaviour literature. While there has been significant progress in understanding why and how employees quit their jobs, there is much more still to be learned about certain areas of voluntary employee turnover. One area that requires particular attention is the voluntary turnover of self-initiated expatriates. These are professionals who choose to relocate to another country to seek job opportunities. Empirical research on self-initiated expatriates is extremely scarce and mostly descriptive and exploratory. Existing literature on expatriate turnover has tended to examine isolated factors leading to expatriate turnover and has not incorporated these within a theoretical model. Using a quantitative methodology, this thesis drew upon a sample of 204 employees working in healthcare organisations in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), to pursue two aims: 1) to develop a model of self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions through identifying the effects of three major forces on expatriates' turnover intention, namely, job satisfaction, job embeddedness, and shock; 2) to examine the generalisability of existing turnover models for expatriates in a non-western context, the UAE.

Findings indicate that job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment are negatively related to turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates. Results also indicate that on-the-job embeddedness negatively influences turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, whereas, off-the-job embeddedness does not. Finally, results show a significant positive relationship between shock and turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates over and beyond job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, and job embeddedness. This relationship is moderated by off-the-job embeddedness. The thesis discusses the implications of these findings for the generalisability of existing turnover models for expatriates in a non-western context.

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Chapter One- Introduction

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Over the last five decades the topic of voluntary employee turnover has been one of the most widely studied organisational concepts (Hom, Griffeth & Sellaro, 1984). Despite more than 1500 academic studies addressing this subject, it continues to be a vibrant area of research, due to developments in managerial approaches; an evolution in research technology; and methodology and labour market changes (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee & Eberly, 2008). While there has been significant progress in understanding why and how employees quit their jobs, there is much more still to be learned about particular areas of voluntary employee turnover (Holtom et al., 2008). One area that requires particular attention is the voluntary turnover of *self-initiated expatriates*. These are professionals who choose to relocate to another country to seek job opportunities rather than being transferred by their employer (Harrison, Shaffer & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004; Jokinen, Brewster & Suutari, 2008; Saxenian, 2005). The world has become a large employment pool for professionals, who self-initiate and finance their expatriation to take advantage of the manpower shortages in certain developed and developing countries (Manpower, 2006; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). The total number of expatriates worldwide is at a record level, reaching around 50.5 million in 2014, and is expected to grow over the next few years, with the majority of expatriates being individual workers who initiate their expatriation (Finaccord, 2014). The demand for skilled employees by foreign countries for economic development and by multinational organisations for their overseas operations continues to grow at a rapid pace (Vaiman et al., 2012; Silvanto & Ryan, 2014). Although there is a growing interest in self-initiated expatriates, this emerging field remains both under-theorised and under-researched (Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn 2013). This thesis aims to study the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates in a non-western context, the United Arab Emirates, where expatriate employees make up the majority of the workforce.

Voluntary employee turnover is widely studied because of its consequences on organisations. This chapter describes the consequences of voluntary turnover in general, and of expatriate turnover in particular, along with the main approaches to

studying voluntary turnover, before introducing the research context. The aims of this thesis are then presented, followed by an overview of the thesis chapters.

1.2 Consequences of voluntary employee turnover

There are many reasons to study voluntary employee turnover, mainly associated with the negative consequences of voluntary turnover on organisations. These consequences include recruitment and selection costs (Cascio, 2006; Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001); training and development costs (Cascio, 2006; Mitchell et al., 2001); work disruption and losses of organisational memory (Cascio, 2006; Mitchell et al., 2001); increased accident rates (Shaw, Gupta & Delery, 2005); general disruption of operations (Ton & Huckman, 2008); lower productivity (Abassi & Hollman, 2000); poorer organisational effectiveness (Hom & Griffeth, 1995); decreased moral of remaining employees (Abassi & Hollman, 2000); and the loss of valued talent (Hom, Mitchell, Lee & Griffeth, 2012).

The negative consequences of voluntary turnover are more evident when an organisation loses its key employees (Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee & Mitchell, 2012). Employees who perform their jobs better and are more intelligent than average or poor employees are believed to have more alternative job opportunities, and are more likely to quit (Trevor, 2001). Therefore voluntary turnover can adversely affect organisational performance and success. Self-initiated expatriates often become key employees to host country organisations (Bozionelos, 2009). High turnover rates of self-initiated expatriates can have a negative impact on organisational productivity, performance and success. The impact of voluntary turnover varies according to industry and context. In recent years, a shortage of healthcare professionals around the world has magnified the negative consequences of voluntary turnover in healthcare organisations, making it imperative that healthcare providers create effective retention plans (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004). Therefore there is a need to study employee turnover intentions in organisations, especially those who rely primarily on self-initiated expatriates.

1.3 Consequences of expatriate turnover

Globalisation has dramatically increased the number of individuals who seek employment outside their home country under their own initiative (Bozionelos, 2009).

There are two types of expatriate employees namely, *self-initiated expatriates* (non-corporate sponsored expatriates) and *assigned expatriates* (corporate sponsored expatriates) (Bozionelos, 2009; Thomas, Lazarova, & Inkson, 2005). There is a clear distinction between assigned and self-initiated expatriates: assigned expatriates are relocated for temporary assignments within the boundaries of their organisation; while self-initiated expatriates voluntarily choose to work in a country different from their own and are self-motivated (Thomas et al., 2005). Expatriate failure, whether in the form of premature return to the home country or diminished performance and attitudes, is particularly costly to organisations, because the expense of expatriate assignments is several times more than domestic assignments (Gale, 2003; Joinson, 2002; Klaff, 2002; Krell, 2005). Most research on expatriation to date has focused on assigned expatriates, employees who are sponsored by their employers (mostly multinational corporations (MNCs)) to work abroad (Baruch & Altman, 2002; Collings, Scullion & Morely, 2007; Lin & Wei, 2005; McNulty & Tharenou, 2004). These expatriates have the support and sponsorship of their organisation, whereas self-initiated expatriates need to rely on their own material and emotional resources and must deal with any difficulty on their own (Bozionelos, 2009; Vance; 2005).

Empirical research on self-initiated expatriates is extremely scarce (Bozionelos, 2009) and mostly descriptive and exploratory (Inkson & Myers, 2003; Richardson & Mckenna, 2002; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Vance; 2005). According to Naumann (1992), most literature on expatriate turnover is not integrated within a theoretical framework and is fragmented and ad hoc (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Kyi, 1988; Newman, Bhatt & Gutteridge, 1978). Existing literature on expatriate turnover has tended to examine isolated factors leading to expatriate turnover and has not incorporated these within a theoretical model. Such factors include: expatriate employees' selection for international assignments (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Church, 1982, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Mendenhall, Dunba & Oddou, 1987; Tung, 1982, 1988; Zeira & Banai, 1985); problems with cross cultural training programmes (Black, 1988; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Brislin, 1979; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Kohls, 1985; Schwind, 1985; Torbiorn, 1982; Tung 1982, 1984); and the difficulties faced by the expatriate's family (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989; Harvey 1985; Tung, 1982). The literature focuses primarily on voluntary and involuntary internal turnover, whereby the expatriate employee either requests a transfer back to a

domestic position or is transferred back from the international assignment. There has been little research on voluntary and involuntary external turnover (Naumann, 1992). This thesis aims to investigate the antecedents of turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates using established turnover models.

1.4 Approaches to studying voluntary turnover

There are three main approaches to conceptualising employee turnover, namely, the job satisfaction approach, the embeddedness approach and the unfolding model approach.

The *job satisfaction* approach is based on March and Simon's (1958) theory of organisational equilibrium. This theory proposes that there are two factors that determine employee turnover: the perceived desirability of movement, which is reflected by job satisfaction (Michell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski & Erez, 2001); and the perceived ease of movement, which is reflected by perceived job alternatives (Mitchell et al., 2001). Models based on this approach investigate the determinants that influence job satisfaction, which, in turn, predicts turnover intention and actual turnover (Brooke, Russell & Price, 1988; Chen et al., 2011; Mobley et al., 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price, 2001; Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Steers & Mowday, 1981). According to Steel and Lounsbury (2009), job satisfaction is one of three aspects, along with job search mechanisms and turnover intentions that comprise "the backbone of contemporary turnover theory" (p. 275). The general notion found in many of the job satisfaction models is that distal antecedents (e.g., individual variables, work-related variables (job characteristics), non-work related variables (environmental) and economic variables) affect attitudinal antecedents (e.g., job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment), which, in turn, affect the criterion or the dependent variable (e.g., turnover intentions and actual turnover) (Brooke, Russell & Price, 1988; Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986; Price, 2001; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Steers & Mowday, 1981). This thesis examines the effect of distal antecedents on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, and the influence of these two attitudinal antecedents on turnover intention.

The criterion variable investigated in this thesis is turnover intention. Turnover intention is the best predictor of turnover behaviour (Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Research on turnover intention should not be overinterpreted as turnover behaviour (Bergman et al., 2012; Hom et al., 2012), however, from an intervention standpoint, organisations have a better chance of changing turnover behaviour, if they can intervene before intentions become actual behaviours (Bergman et al., 2012). Employees' quit cognitions certainly have implications for other workplace behaviours such as motivation, performance, loyalty and organisational citizenship behaviours (Bergman et al., 2012). In their review of employee turnover research, Hom et al., (2012) advocate studying employees' withdrawal states.

The embeddedness approach shifts the focus from job satisfaction to other factors that predict voluntary employee turnover. Mitchell et al.'s (2001) *job embeddedness* model focuses on why people stay, rather than why they leave. Job embeddedness is the totality of forces that constrain people from leaving their current employment, rather than the negative attitudes that promote a person to quit their job (Mitchell et al., 2001). There are two sets of components in the embeddedness model, *on-the job* components and *off-the job* components, that constrain individuals from quitting their job. The model is built on three dimensions namely: *links*, *fit* and *sacrifice*. Links are the formal or informal connections between an individual and organisations or other people (Mitchell et al., 2001, p.1104). Fit is an employee's perceived comfort or compatibility with an organisation and with his/her environment; Sacrifice refers to the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be lost by leaving a job (Mitchell et al., 2001, p. 2001). Each of these dimensions has an organisational and community component (Mitchell et al., 2001). According to Mitchell et al. (2001), on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness predict turnover over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment; hence the job embeddedness model complements and extends an understanding of the antecedents of employee turnover (Jiang et al., 2012). In this thesis, the embeddedness approach is investigated by studying the effects of on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates after controlling for job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment.

Lee and Mitchell (1994) propose that voluntary turnover is not always a result of accumulated job satisfaction. Lee and Mitchell's (1994) *unfolding model* proposes five paths that employees might follow prior to turnover, and introduces new concepts to the turnover literature such as *shock*. A shock is a specific jarring event that may initiate thoughts of quitting (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1999). Shocks have not been examined as a determinant for self-initiated expatriates turnover intention (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). This thesis examines the effects of shock on the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates after controlling for job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, and job embeddedness.

1.5 The research context

The context of this thesis is the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Since the discovery of oil in the 1960s, the UAE has witnessed rapid development in many sectors of its economy. This development has led to a massive influx of expatriate workers, due to a shortage in both number and skills of national workers (Wilkins, 2001). Although this has been a necessity for the development of the country, it has resulted in demographic challenges (Wilkins, 2001). Expatriates make up more than 80% of the UAE population, and around 90% of the workforce (Randeree, 2009).

Employee turnover has negative impacts on the UAE economy. According to a Labour Report released by the UAE Ministry of Labour, the annual rate of employee turnover is 21%, costing UAE businesses \$2.7 billion every year (ameinfo, 2008; arabianbusiness, 2008; Gulfnew, 2008; UAEtoday, 2008). The costs of turnover can easily surpass 150% of employee remuneration and is much higher for managers and highly paid executives (Gulfnews, 2008). Moreover, the average employee tenure in the UAE is just 4.7 years (ameinfo, 2008; arabianbusiness, 2008; Gulfnew, 2008; UAEtoday, 2008). Therefore there is a need to study the determinants of employee turnover intentions in the UAE and, in particular in healthcare organisations, due to the shortage of healthcare professionals worldwide. As in other sectors of the economy, the healthcare sector has witnessed huge growth over the last three decades. The number of public hospitals has increased from seven in 1970 to 40 in 2007 (Library of Congress, 2007). The total number of public and private hospitals in the UAE in 2015 is 108 (Deepak, 2015). The healthcare sector is also similar to other sectors in its workforce composition. According to McKinsey & Company's *World*

Economic Forum's Arab World Competitiveness Report (2007), 96% of nurses and 82% of physicians in the UAE are expatriates. Current figures indicate that 90% of nurses and 89% of physicians in the UAE are expatriates, all from different cultures and educational backgrounds (*Fresh Blood - Opportunities for Healthcare Professionals in the UAE*, 2015). The workforce composition in the UAE and the large numbers of expatriate employees in the healthcare sector offers a unique opportunity to study self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions.

1.6 Aims of this thesis

This thesis aims to study turnover intentions in a non-western context through examining the generalisability of existing turnover models in the UAE, where expatriate employees make up the majority of the workforce. According to Holtom et al. (2008), the turnover field would benefit greatly from examining how these existing models can be generalised to non-western contexts. This thesis will contribute to the literature of employee turnover by: first, developing a model of self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions through identifying the effects of three major forces on expatriates' turnover intention, namely, job satisfaction, job embeddedness, and shock; Second, examining the generalisability of existing turnover models to self-initiated expatriates in a non-western context, the UAE.

1.7 Overview of the chapters

The following chapter, Chapter Two, provides a review of the literature on voluntary employee turnover, which serves as a foundation for this thesis. The chapter begins with a definition of employee turnover and definitions of related concepts, such as the functionality of employee turnover, turnover intentions, and turnover measures. This is followed by a brief discussion of the impact of employee turnover on organisations. A historical review of voluntary employee turnover models, starting from the earliest model of voluntary turnover proposed in the 1950s, is outlined. The chapter reviews the literature on employee turnover theories, which is theoretically structured into two main approaches to employee turnover: the job satisfaction approach and the embeddedness approach. The job satisfaction approach focuses on job-related variables that determine employee turnover. On the other hand, the embeddedness approach focuses on the ties connecting an individual employee to his/her job and

his/her community and how turnover causes these ties to be severed. Finally, the chapter covers the literature on self-initiated expatriates.

Chapter Three outlines the proposed theoretical model of self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions. The chapter begins with a discussion of the rationale for proposing a multivariate model, and addresses the reasons behind studying turnover intention rather than actual turnover in this thesis. Then, the theoretical framework is presented. The proposed model includes a number of hypotheses that explain turnover intention through different paths. The first path incorporates job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, which are proposed to directly influence turnover intention among self-initiated expatriates. It also includes a number of distal antecedents: pay, distributive justice, promotional chances and autonomy, in addition to social support antecedents: co-worker support, work group cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange. The second path addresses the effects of on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness on self-initiated expatriates' turnover intentions. Finally, the third path discusses the influence of shock on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. It also introduces the idea of connecting the embeddedness model with the unfolding model, to better understand turnover intention. This connection is examined through the moderating effect of embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intention.

Chapter Four offers an overview of the research context, the United Arab Emirates. It covers topics such as the history, economy, population, workforce, and significant business trends in the United Arab Emirates. The chapter outlines the economic and labour market contexts of the research, identifying the key elements that shape this research, such as the workforce composition and the nature of the expatriate workforce. Self-initiated expatriates make up the majority of the workforce in the UAE because of the attractive job opportunities, good healthcare and education, high incomes and good standards of living. Nevertheless, self-initiated expatriates face challenges in this work environment related to job security, pay and promotion inequality.

Chapter Five presents the research methodology used in this thesis. The chapter begins by examining different research methodologies, identifying the methodology

of choice and the rationale for choosing this methodology. The chapter covers the concept of methodological fit and uses a framework to explain the selected methodology for this research. It also outlines a number of key studies in employee turnover literature that use quantitative research methods. Finally it relates the choice of methodology to the research context, by examining a number of studies previously undertaken in the UAE healthcare sector. The chapter addresses areas related to the empirical research of this thesis such as the steps, issues and problems encountered in the process of gaining access to the research sites. It also covers the fieldwork and methods used to collect data, in addition to presenting the role of the researcher. Finally the questionnaire items and their reliability are presented.

Chapter Six presents the results of this study, along with the statistical analyses of the results. The descriptive statistics and correlation matrix are covered, followed by tests for linearity and multicollinearity. Then the multivariate analyses that examine the effects of job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment on the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates in the UAE are identified. This is followed by a summary of the effects of distal variables such as pay satisfaction, autonomy, promotional opportunities, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Then the results of the hierarchical regression are presented, which show the effect of on-the-job embeddedness, off-the-job embeddedness and shock on the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates in the UAE. Finally, the results of the moderating effects of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and self-initiated expatriates' turnover intentions are discussed.

Chapter Seven recapitulates the purpose of the thesis. It discusses relevant topics such as the growing number of self-initiated expatriates worldwide; the gaps in the literature of self-initiated expatriate turnover, the differences between self-initiated expatriates and other employees; and the UAE as a destination for expatriates. This is followed by a brief discussion of the background of employee turnover literature including job satisfaction models, embeddedness models and the unfolding model. This is then related to research on the turnover of self-initiated expatriates and how this thesis contributes to the literature of employee turnover, by seeking to test the

validity and appropriateness of employee turnover models on self-initiated expatriates. A summary of the key findings is then presented, before describing the contributions of this thesis to the existing literature on employee turnover. The practical implications of the results are then discussed, followed by consideration of the limitations of the research. Finally, directions for future research in employee turnover of self-initiated expatriates are presented.

Chapter eight provides a synthesis of the results, the key contributions and implications of this thesis.

1.8 Conclusion

This chapter introduces the topic of this thesis and emphasises its significance by outlining the consequences of employee turnover in general, and expatriate turnover in particular. The chapter highlights the most widely studied approaches that have been used to explain voluntary turnover, followed by discussion of the context and aims of the study, and an overview of the thesis chapters. The next chapter presents the literature review on voluntary employee turnover and self-initiated expatriate turnover.

Chapter Two- Employee Turnover Literature Review

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Chapter Two: Employee Turnover Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the literature on voluntary employee turnover, which serves as a foundation for this thesis. The chapter begins with a definition of employee turnover and definitions of related concepts such as the functionality of employee turnover, turnover intentions, and turnover measures. This is followed by a brief discussion of the impact of employee turnover on organisations. A historical review of voluntary employee turnover models starting from the earliest model of voluntary turnover proposed in 1950s is outlined. Along with this review a detailed description of turnover models is presented and structured within the two main approaches to employee turnover namely, the job satisfaction approach and the embeddedness approach. The job satisfaction approach focuses on job-related variables that determine employee turnover. On the other hand, the embeddedness approach focuses on the ties connecting an individual employee to his/her job and his/her community and how turnover causes these ties to be severed. Subsequent sections of this chapter review the literature on other topics related to the thesis including expatriates employee turnover.

2.2 Employee Turnover Definitions and Consequences

2.2.1 Employee turnover definitions

Turnover has been defined as; “the movement of members across the boundary of an organisation” (Price, 2001, p. 600). Members are “employees who are paid for their services to the organisation” (Price, 2001, p. 600). Burgess, (1998, p. 55) defines employee turnover as follows: “Worker turnover generally refers to the movement of workers around the labour market, between firms, and among the states of employment, unemployment, and inactivity.” When this movement is initiated by the individual employee, turnover is voluntary (Price, 1977). One of the common terms for voluntary leavers is “quits” (Price, 2001). *Voluntary employee turnover* has been defined as the “voluntary cessation of membership of an organisation by an employee of that organisation” (Morrell et al., 2001, p. 6). *Involuntary employee turnover* has been defined as the “movement across the membership boundary of an organisation, which is not initiated by the employee” (Price, 1977, p. 9). Voluntary turnover occurs

as a result of an employee's resignation, while involuntary turnover might occur by reasons independent of the affected employee(s) (Morrell et al., 2001), such as dismissal, downsizing, death, and any reason beyond the control of the employee. Most employee turnover research focuses on voluntary turnover (March & Simon, 1958; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price, 1977; Mobley, 1977; Steers & Mowday, 1981; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; and Mitchell et al., 2001).

2.2.1.1 Functionality of employee turnover

Voluntary employee turnover can be divided into *dysfunctional* and *functional turnover* (Dalton et al., 1982). Dysfunctional turnover is characterised by the exit of employees who have skills that are difficult to replace or exit of high performers, and this can be harmful to the organisation (Allen Bryant & Vardaman, 2010). Functional turnover is characterised by the exit of employees who are easy to replace; such turnover may be disruptive, but not harmful. Functional turnover is also characterised by the exit of poor performers, which is beneficial to the organisation (Allen et al., 2010).

2.2.1.2 Avoidability of Employee Turnover

Voluntary employee turnover is further divided into *avoidable* and *unavoidable* turnover (Abelson, 1987). Avoidable turnover occurs for reasons that may be influenced by the organisation, such as higher pay at a perceived alternative job, low job satisfaction and poor supervision (Allen et al., 2010). Unavoidable turnover occurs for reasons that may not be influenced by the organisation, such as health or family issues (Allen et al., 2010).

2.2.1.3 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is an important concept in the turnover literature due to the close relationship between turnover intention and actual turnover (Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Steers & Mowday, 1981; Hulin et al., 1985). Turnover intention or intent to leave/intent to quit has been found to be the strongest predictor of actual voluntary turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000). Turnover intention is defined as; “the (subjective) probability that an individual will change his or her job within a certain period of

time” (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2002, p. 1). Unlike actual turnover, turnover intentions are not definite (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger, 2002, p. 1).

2.2.1.4 Turnover measure

The most common measure of employee turnover that is used by organisations is a crude measure called *turnover rate* (Morrell et al., 2001). Employee turnover rate over a given period of time is calculated as the number of employees leaving divided by the average number of employees (Heneman & Judge, 2006).

2.2.2 Employee turnover consequences

Voluntary employee turnover is one of the most widely studied organisational phenomenon (Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984; Holtom, Mitchell, Lee & Eberly, 2008); this is due to the importance of employee retention in determining organisational effectiveness and the cost of employee turnover.

2.2.2.1 The influence of employee turnover on organisational effectiveness

High voluntary turnover adversely influences organisational effectiveness (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Organisational effectiveness is the extent to which the organisation achieves its goals (Price, 1977, p. 110). A high rate of employee turnover affects the organisation’s ability to achieve its goals. Research shows that low turnover rates are linked to sales growth, higher performance, and increase in organisation’s profitability (Batt, 2002; Huselid, 1995). The most powerful source of long-term competitive advantage for any organisation is human and social capital (Pfeffer, 1995). According to Allen, Bryant and Vardaman (2010, p. 52); “There is an emerging consensus that it may soon become more challenging for organisations to retain their key employees”. This is due to concerns of the future availability of skilled labour with demographic shifts, aging populations, globalization, inadequate educational programs and entrepreneurial practices (Allen et al., 2010, p. 52). Employee retention is a major source of competitive advantage; furthermore it is an indicator of organisational performance, as illustrated in Cascio’s (2002) study of companies in Fortune’s 2002. The study showed that the “100 Best Organisations to Work For” report much lower annual employee turnover rates (12.6% to 26%) than comparable companies in their sector. The study adds that the top 100 firms have significantly higher operating performance, higher average stock returns, higher returns on capital employed, and

higher return on assets (Cascio, 2002). This distinguished organisational performance is mainly due to lower turnover rates (Cascio, 2002). According to Hatch and Dyer “firms with high turnover significantly under-perform their rivals” (2004, p. 1155). Additionally high performance human resource practices increase organisation profitability and market value; this is partly due to reducing turnover rates (Batt, 2002). Therefore low employee turnover rate is one of the key determinants of organisational effectiveness.

2.2.2.2 The cost of employee turnover

Cost is an important consequence of employee turnover. Waldman et al. (2004) found that the estimated voluntary employee turnover costs for healthcare organisations is more than 5% of the overall annual operating budget. These costs include hiring, training and productivity loss costs (Waldman et al., 2004). Sagie et al. (2002) calculated the total cost of employee withdrawal, which includes lateness, absence, turnover, in addition to recruiting and training costs to be 17% of the pre-tax total annual income. The costs associated with selecting, recruiting and training new employees often exceed 100% of the cost of the annual salary for the position being filled (Cascio, 2006). The total cost associated with turnover ranges between 90% and 200% of annual salary (Cascio, 2006; Mitchell, Holtom & Lee, 2001). In addition to the direct costs of turnover, work disruption and losses of organisational memory are significant issues associated with employee turnover (Allen et al., 2010).

Employee turnover is one of the most significant causes of declining productivity and sagging morale in both the public and private sectors (Abassi & Hollman, 2000). Argote, Insko, Yovetich, and Romero (1995) found that the production of groups with turnover is significantly less than the production of groups without turnover. Furthermore, employee turnover results in decreasing customer service quality (Hancock et al., 2011); increasing accident rates (Shaw, Gupta & Delery, 2005), generally disrupts operations (Ton & Huckman, 2008), and leads to the loss of valued talent (Hom et al., 2012). The importance of employee turnover in determining organisational effectiveness and the high costs organisations endure as a result of it, attracts particular attention from managers and researchers. According to Allen et al. (2010, p.52); “organisations and managers who have a shared understanding of

turnover effects and trends may achieve a competitive advantage”. This understanding of employee turnover effects and trends originates from empirical research.

2.3 Employee Turnover Models

Job Satisfaction Models

2.3.1 March and Simon’s (1958) Organisational Equilibrium Model

The employee turnover models presented in this section lie within the job satisfaction approach. The first milestone in voluntary employee turnover research was in the late 1950s when March and Simon (1958) introduced the first model of voluntary employee turnover. Their *Organisational Equilibrium Model* proposes two factors that determine voluntary employee turnover, namely: the perceived desirability of movement, which is reflected by job satisfaction (Mitchell et al., 2001), and the perceived ease of movement, which is reflected by job alternatives (Mitchell et al., 2001). March and Simon’s key determinants for the perceived ease of movement are individual differences in ability, tenure, gender and age, and their key determinants for the perceived desirability of movement are organisational size and job satisfaction. According to March and Simon (1958), the perceived ease of movement and the perceived desirability of movement operate independently to affect voluntary turnover.

March and Simon’s (1958) organisational equilibrium model proposes that employees will continue to participate in the organisation as long as the inducements offered by the organisation are higher or equal to the contributions required by the organisation (Allen et al., 2010). March and Simon (1958) argues that voluntary employee turnover results from an employee’s decision to participate in the activities of his/her organisation, this decision is theorized to develop from two sub decisions about the perceived ease and desirability of movement. This model forms the basis of employee turnover research as most models include a particular combination of job satisfaction and perceived job alternatives (Lee et al., 1996). The two factors in March and Simon’s model, job satisfaction and perceived job alternatives, provide the major conceptual foundation for much of the literature on employee turnover (Hulin et al., 1985).

2.3.2 Porter and Steers' (1973) Met Expectation Model

In the 1970s a number of employee turnover models were introduced. In 1973 Porter and Steers (1973) introduced their *Met Expectation Model*, following a review of the literature, where they conclude that there is a negative consistent relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973). According to Porter and Steers (1973, p.152) met expectation is; “the discrepancy between what a person encounters on his job in the way of positive and negative experiences and what he expected to encounter”. Porter and Steers (1973) propose that since different employees will have different expectations concerning pay offs or rewards at a certain organisation, a given variable such as pay would not have a uniform impact on all employees’ withdrawal decisions, therefore; “when an individual’s expectations - whatever they are- are not substantially met, his propensity to withdrawal would increase” (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 152). They define satisfaction as; “the sum total of an individual’s met expectations on the job... The more an individual’s expectations are met on the job the greater his satisfaction” (1973, p. 169).

Each employee has expectations about certain factors in their jobs, and each employee places high importance on meeting these factors, such as pay, supervisory and peer group interaction, promotion, etc. The importance of such different factors vary on an individual basis (Porter & Steers, 1973). However; “whatever the composition of the individual’s expectation set, it is important that those factors be substantially met if the employee is to feel it’s worthwhile to remain with the organisation” (Porter & Steers, 1973, p.171). One of the feasible approaches organisations can take to increase employees’ met expectations is to improve rewards in supervisory “interactions, recognition and feedback on performance” (Porter & Steers, 1973, p.172). Porter and Steers (1973) propose intention to leave as the next logical step in the withdrawal process after dissatisfaction. Support for the met expectation model is weak (Mobley et al., 1979). Met expectations did not significantly related to turnover (Wanous, 1973; Dunnette, Arvey and Banas, 1973).

2.3.3 Mobley's (1977) Intermediate Linkage Model

Towards the end of the 1970s a more detailed model of voluntary employee turnover was introduced. Mobley (1977) introduced the *Intermediate Linkage Model*. This was the first model to propose stages for turnover. According to Mobley (1977,

p.237); “The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is significant and consistent but not particularly strong.” Several studies had reported a consistent negative relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Locke, 1976; Porter & Steers, 1973). Although the satisfaction-turnover relationship is consistent, it accounts for less than 16% of the variance in employee turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973; Mobley, et al., 1979). Observed correlation between satisfaction and turnover seldom exceeds 0.4 (Locke, 1976). Therefore it was necessary for turnover models to move beyond satisfaction as the only turnover determinant (Mobley et al., 1979). There are other variables that can explain turnover, and that link job dissatisfaction to turnover (Mobley, 1977).

Mobley’s (1977) model proposes an understanding of the psychology of turnover and the withdrawal process (Hom et al., 1984). The intermediate linkage model is based on the belief that “employee turnover is an individual choice behaviour” (Mobley et al., 1979, p. 493). It suggests several mediating steps between dissatisfaction and actual quitting, as follows:

The first step is an evaluation of the existing (current) job, which will lead to experiencing job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Mobley, 1977). Dissatisfaction can lead to outcomes other than turnover, such as absenteeism and passive job behaviour (Mobley, 1977; Kraut, 1975). Dissatisfaction may also result in the initiation of thoughts of quitting (Mobley, 1977). Consequently there will be; “An evaluation of the expected utility of search and of the cost of quitting” (Mobley, 1977, p.237). This will include an evaluation of the chances of finding another job and the cost of searching for that job (Mobley, 1977). This step “incorporates March and Simon’s (1958) perceived ease of movement concept” (Mobley, 1977, p.238).

The next step of the withdrawal process is behavioural intention to search for alternatives (Mobley, 1977). This step may be initiated by non-job related factors, such as transfer of a spouse (Mobley, 1977). Actual search for alternatives follows (Mobley, 1977), then evaluation of alternatives, followed by comparison of the present job to alternatives (Mobley, 1977, p.239). If the alternatives are found to be better than the current job, this will result in the intention to quit or to stay (Mobley,

1977). The relationship between intentions and turnover is consistent and it counts for less than 24% of the variance in employee turnover (Mobley et al., 1979).

The final step is actual quitting or staying (Mobley, 1977). According to Mobley (1977) the intermediate linkage model is “heuristic rather than descriptive” (Mobley, 1977, p.239). The steps in the withdrawal decision process may vary from conscious (rational) to impulsive (Mobley, 1977).

In 1978, Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth proposed an abbreviated version of Mobley’s (1977) model. This version hypothesises that job satisfaction affects thoughts of quitting, intention to search, and intention to quit (Mobley et al., 1978). They postulated that thoughts of quitting directly affect intention to search, and intention to search directly affects intention to quit (Mobley et al., 1978). This reduced version of the intermediate linkage model has been validated and supported (Mobley et al., 1978; Miller, Katerberg, and Hulin, 1979).

2.3.4 Mobley et al.’s (1979) Intermediate Linkage Model

A conceptual model based on Mobley’s (1977) *Intermediate Linkage Model* was proposed in 1979 by Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino. The conceptual model suggests a need to distinguish between job satisfaction, which is present-oriented and attraction or expected utility, which is future oriented (Mobley et al., 1979). Mobley et al., (1979, p. 510) also suggest that “multivariate studies are necessary in turnover research”. Mobley et al., (1979) modified the earlier model, by further explaining the main elements in that model (such as intentions, satisfaction, and attraction expected utility of present job and of alternative jobs), and by adding moderating variables (such as non-work values and interests, non-work consequences of quitting, and contractual constraints in addition to job perceptions and labour market perceptions). Mobley et al. (1979)’s explanations of the elements in the intermediate linkage model are as follows:

Intentions: intention is the immediate precursor of behaviour (Locke, 1968; Mobley, 1977; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). According to Graen and Ginsburgh (1977), the more specific the intention measures are and the closer to the actual behaviour such measures come, the more trivial the predictions becomes. The best predictor of

employee turnover is intention to quit (Mobley et al., 1979; Kraut, 1975; Mobley et al., 1978, Newman; 1974). In the intermediate linkage model (Mobley, 1977 and Mobley et al., 1979) there are two important intentions: intention to search for alternatives and intention to quit. According to Mobley et al.,:

“The primary determinants of turnover intentions and behaviours are:

- a) Satisfaction
- b) Attraction expected utility of present job
- c) Attraction expected utility of alternative jobs” Mobley et al., (1979, p. 518)

Satisfaction: According to Mobley et al., (1979, p.518) “Satisfaction is present rather than future oriented” and “the behavioural implication of satisfaction-dissatisfaction is a tendency towards approach-avoidance”.

Basically whether satisfaction/dissatisfaction results in approach or avoidance, depends on three variables:

- 1- Attraction expected utility of the present job and alternative jobs
- 2- “Centrality of work values, beliefs regarding non-work consequences of quitting–staying” (Mobley et al., 1979, p. 518).
- 3- “Contractual constraints” (Mobley et al., 1979, p. 518).

Attraction and expected utility of present job: “Attraction is considered to be future oriented” (Mobley et al., 1979, p. 518). Attraction represents the expectations that a job will lead to the achievement of positive or negative outcomes. Expectancy represents the probability of staying in the present job (Mobley et al., 1979). Attraction expected utility of the current job affects turnover (Mobley et al., 1979, p.518). Attraction expected utility and satisfaction should have separate effects on intentions to search or to quit (Mobley et al., 1979).

Attraction and expected utility of alternatives: According to Mobley et al. (1979, p.519) “it is not merely the visibility of alternatives but the attraction of alternatives and the expectancy of attaining the alternatives that are most salient”. In addition to the attraction of alternatives, the expectancy of getting the alternative is considered (Mobley et al., 1979).

Moderating variables: Mobley et al., (1979, p.520) emphasise the; “need to look beyond the work setting for a complete understanding of the psychology of the turnover process”. According to Mobley et al. (1979, p. 519) the moderating variables include:

- 1- Non-work values and interests.
- 2- Non-work consequences of quitting.
- 3- Contracts constraints.

Antecedents: Mobley et al. (1979, p.520) called attention to the role of antecedents “... The influence of various organisational, economic or labour market, occupational, and personal variables are through individual perceptions, expectations and values”.

2.3.5 Hom, Griffeth and Sellaro’s (1984) Alternative Linkage Model

In 1984 Hom, Griffeth and Sellaro proposed the *Alternative Linkage Model* based on Mobley’s (1977) and Mobley et al.’s (1979) work. The alternative linkage model considers “the addition to Mobley’s basic model of the perceived social pressure from referent others placed on the employee to perform withdrawal actions” (Hom et al., 1984, p.144). This consideration is stated in Mobley et al.’s (1979) model as: centrality of non-work values and roles and non-work consequences of quitting. The alternative model also proposes that the evaluation of alternative jobs, the comparison of alternative jobs with the current job and intention to quit precede both intention to search and actual search activity (Hom et al., 1984). Moreover they suggested that intention to quit succeeds the evaluation and comparisons of alternative jobs because having the perception of available, attractive jobs and comparing the alternative jobs with the current job may initiate the intention to quit (Hom et al., 1984).

The alternative linkage model suggests that failure in the search for an alternative job may result in an intention to stop the search, an intention to stay in the current job, or postponement of quitting until another job search succeeds (Hom et al., 1984). Furthermore this model hypothesises that after a job search the employee compares the alternative jobs with the current job, and then makes a choice followed by a decision to stay or to quit (Hom et al., 1984). Finally this model suggests the possibility that some employees may quit without searching for alternatives (Hom, Griffeth, and Sellaro, 1984), a path developed further by (Lee & Mitchell, 1994).

2.3.6 Muchinsky and Morrow's (1980) Multidisciplinary Model

Muchinsky and Morrow's (1980) *Multidisciplinary Model* of voluntary employee turnover demonstrates the impact of economic conditions on employee turnover. This model proposes three classes of employee turnover determinants as follows: characteristics of the individual employee; work-related factors; and the state of economic variables (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980). The model hypothesises that individual and work related variables predict turnover more accurately under good economic conditions, rather than strained economic conditions (Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980).

2.3.7 Price and Mueller's (1981; 1986) Causal Model

One of the major turnover models proposed in the 1980s is Price and Mueller's (1981; 1986) *Causal Model* based on Price's earlier work of 1977 that offered a causal model derived from a synthesis of previous turnover literature (Price & Mueller, 1981). The causal model depicts how determinants operate to produce turnover (Price & Mueller, 1981). The dependent variable in the causal model is voluntary leaving (Price, 1977), or turnover (Price & Mueller, 1981). The causal model is the main satisfaction model that forms a foundation of the theoretical model in this thesis.

According to Price and Mueller (1981), the turnover literature suggests the following determinants to affect employee turnover: "Opportunity, routinization, participation, instrumental communication, integration, pay, distributive justice, promotional opportunity, professionalism, general training and kinship responsibility" (Price & Mueller, 1981. p.544). According to Price and Mueller (1981) the literature describes two additional variables that influence turnover: intent to stay and job satisfaction. These two variables intervene between the determinants and turnover. Table 2.1 provides definitions of the eleven determinants and intervening variables.

<i>Determinant</i>	<i>Definition</i>
<i>Opportunity</i>	The availability of alternative jobs in the organisation's environment.
<i>Routinization</i>	The degree to which a job is repetitive.

<i>Participation</i>	The degree of power that an individual exercises concerning the job.
<i>Instrumental communication</i>	The degree to which information about the job is transmitted by an organisation to its members.
<i>Integration</i>	The degree to which an individual has close friends among organisational members.
<i>Pay</i>	The amount of money, or equivalents, distributed in return service.
<i>Distributive justice</i>	The degree to which rewards and punishments are related to the amount of input into the organisation.
<i>Promotional opportunity</i>	The amount of potential movement from lower to higher strata within an organisation.
<i>Professionalism</i>	The degree of dedication to occupational standards of performance.
<i>General training</i>	The degree to which the occupational socialization of an individual results in the ability to increase the productivity of different organisations.
<i>Kinship responsibility</i>	The degree of an individual's obligations to relatives in the community in which an employer is located.
<i>Job satisfaction</i>	The degree to which individuals like their jobs.
<i>Intent to stay</i>	The estimated likelihood of continued membership in an organisation.

Table 2.1: Price and Mueller's (1981, p. 545-546) Causal Model of Turnover-Definitions of determinants and intervening variables.

Price and Mueller (1981) describe their causal model by explaining the determinants and their impact on employee turnover in the following way (see figure 2.1): one of the employee turnover determinants, namely opportunity (or job alternatives) influences turnover directly. Seven determinants have an indirect impact on turnover through job satisfaction. These seven determinants influence job satisfaction as follows: Routinisation decreases job satisfaction, whereas each of participation, instrumental communication, integration, receiving good pay, distributive justice and promotional opportunities increase job satisfaction. Increased job satisfaction results in greater intent to stay. Three determinants have an indirect impact on turnover

through intent to stay. These three determinants influence intent to stay as follows: Professionalism and generalised training decrease intent to stay, whereas kinship responsibility increases intent to stay. Finally the causal model indicates that intent to stay has a direct negative impact on turnover (Price and Mueller, 1981).

Price's (1977) synthesis of turnover literature includes all the determinants and variables in the causal turnover model except general training, kinship responsibility and intent to stay (Price & Mueller, 1981). According to Price and Mueller (1981) general training was added to Price's (1977) original model because of Becker's (1964) and Parsons' (1972) research that developed the concept of firm-specific human capital and its implications on turnover. Price and Mueller (1981) added kinship responsibility to the model because it was suggested in the demographic literature on relocation and migration (Long, 1972; Comay, 1972; Miller, 1976). The major change to Price's (1977) model made by Price and Mueller (1981, p.547) was "the addition of intent to stay as an intervening variable between job satisfaction and turnover". This addition corresponds to research that views intent to stay as one aspect of commitment (Porter et al., 1974; Steers, 1977; Porter et al., 1976). Mobley et al. (1979, p.508) found that commitment is "significantly and negatively related to turnover."

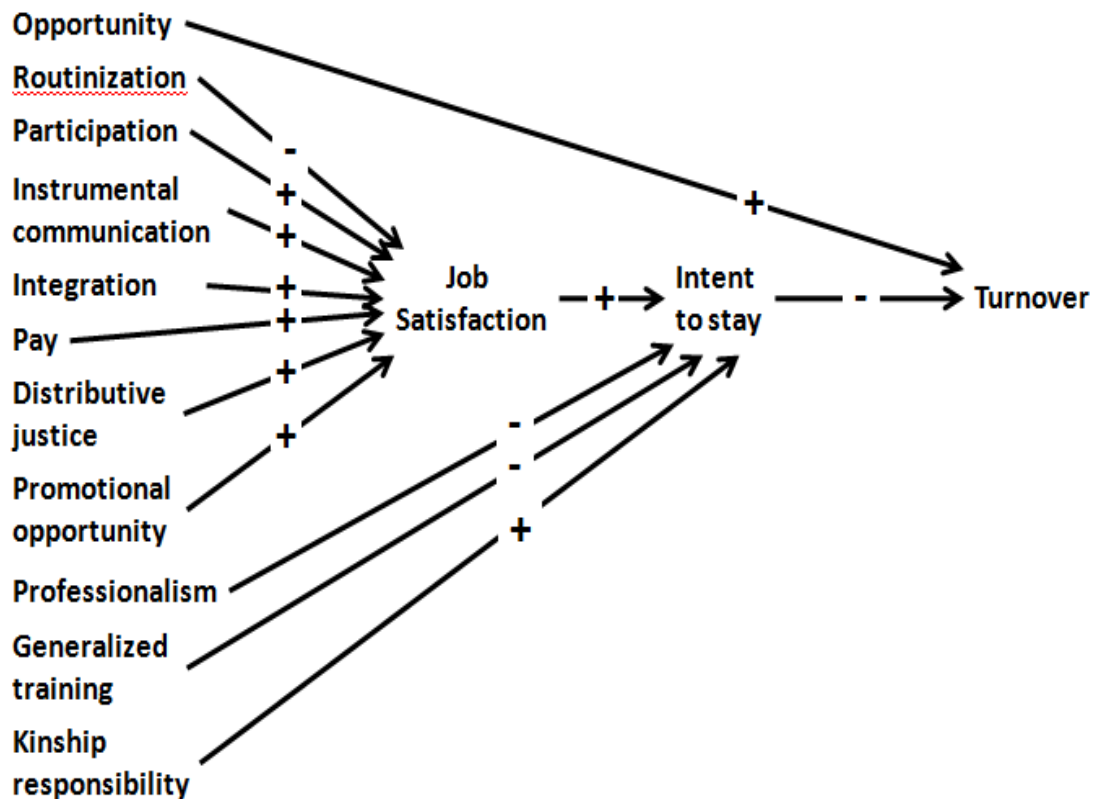


Figure 2.1: The Causal Turnover Model (Price & Mueller, 1981. p. 547)

The linkages illustrated in figure 2.1 are “probabilistic rather than deterministic, linear rather than non-linear, and additive rather than non-additive” (Price & Mueller, 1981, p. 549). The causal model does not include correlates or demographic variables such as age, length of service, existence of a union, or vested pension funds “because they do not indicate the means whereby they produce variation in turnover” (Price & Mueller, 1981, p.548). However correlates are not totally ignored, the causal model indirectly incorporates three correlates: age, the length of service, and the amount of time worked (i.e. full time vs. part time). The influence of the correlates should be estimated after the determinants have been included (Price & Mueller, 1981).

Price and Mueller (1981) empirically tested their causal model on 1091 registered nurses in seven hospitals. Based on Becker and Newhauser's (1975) classification scheme, six of the seven hospitals were of medium size, that is, between 100-500 beds, and the seventh was slightly larger with 620 beds. Five of the hospitals were located in Iowa and two in Illinois. Price and Mueller (1981) used a longitudinal design for their study and the data collection required two steps. The first step

involved the distribution of questionnaires, mostly by mail, to the homes of 1383 nurses. A total of 1101 questionnaires were returned, yielding a response rate of 80%. The second step involved determining who had left the hospitals, and whether the turnover was voluntary or involuntary. One of the researchers visited each hospital 14 months after the first stage to get a list from the administration of the nurses no longer employed by the hospital. The list also indicated those nurses who had died, retired or were dismissed.

The results were, first: “the determinants are largely independent of each other” and second “most of the determinants are not strongly related to turnover” (Price & Mueller, 1981, p.552). Intent to stay was found to have the greatest impact on turnover, compared with the other determinants. Opportunity was found to be the second most important determinant and the third most important was found to be general training (Price & Mueller, 1981). Price and Mueller (1981) remarked that the two most widely supported determinants in the employee turnover literature are opportunity and pay. Yet, when included in their comprehensive model, opportunity was shown to be four times as important as pay, which demonstrates the value of multivariate analysis with a comprehensive model. Additionally, the findings about opportunity provide marginal support for March and Simon (1958), who argued that opportunity is the most important determinant of turnover. Job satisfaction is one of the variables given considerable attention in the literature, both as an important determinant of turnover and as an intervening variable. According to Price and Mueller (1981) job satisfaction “was found to have no significant net influence on turnover”, however it was found to be an “important mediating variable between the other determinants and turnover” (Price & Mueller, 1981, p.559). Therefore satisfaction has a fairly large total effect.

Price and Mueller (1981) found that the other determinants “had a total effect too small to be meaningful (pay, kinship responsibility, routinization, instrumental communication, promotional opportunity, and participation)... or had no total effects at all (integration, distributive justice, and professionalism)” (Price & Mueller, 1981, p.559). Though these determinants [pay, kinship responsibility, routinization, instrumental communication, promotional opportunity, and participation] had small

total effects, they did have an impact on turnover through the intervening variables of job satisfaction and intent to stay.

Price and Mueller (1981) suggest that none of the determinants should be discarded as having a possible influence on turnover. In their recommendations for future research Price and Mueller (1981) suggest considering the size of the organisation, as this could have a positive or negative impact on turnover. Increased size may result in more pay and more participation, thus decrease turnover, yet increased size may produce or have greater routinization, thus increase turnover.

In 1986 Price and Mueller attempted to modify their first study, which Price (2004) referred to as the “Iowa-Illinois Study”, by addressing the following points. First, the time gap between collecting data about nurses’ situation and collecting turnover data is too long, fourteen months, during which, the situation of nurses might have changed and thus the reasons behind turnover might have changed as well. Second, the focus on non-supervisory nurses probably created too homogenous a sample to detect variations of turnover determinants (Price, 2004). For example pay, despite its massive support in the literature, was not supported in the Iowa-Illinois study as a significant determinant of turnover. The lack of significance for pay may have been due to the lack of pay variation in the sample (Price, 2004). Third, since all the nurses in the Iowa-Illinois study were female this made the results of kinship responsibility questionable. Price (2004, p.15) explained, “Females were the traditional providers of kinship services”. Therefore kinship responsibility may have been a determinant due to the all female sample.

Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller (1986) examined the ordering of job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment in the causal model. Affective organisational commitment is defined as; “the extent to which an employee identifies with and is involved in an organisation” (Curry et al., 1986, p.847). Job satisfaction is defined as; “the extent to which an employee expresses a positive affective orientation toward a job” (Curry et al., 1986, p.848). Knowledge of the correct causal relationship between job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment has many important theoretical and practical implications. Curry et al.’s (1986) study focused on the interaction of satisfaction and commitment over time. The primary finding of this

research was that there is no causal linkage between satisfaction and commitment. Curry et al. (1986) examined exogenous variables, such as distributive justice, routinisation, and integration. Their results indicated that employees' perceptions of organisational structure have important implications on their satisfaction and commitment. However, none of these relationships were significant when time-lagged measures of satisfaction and commitment were used. Therefore there is; "a lack of causal effects over time for commitment and satisfaction" (Curry et al., 1986, p. 854).

In a study that supports the causal model propositions, Brooke, Russell and Price (1988) propose that there is discriminant validity of the measures of job satisfaction, job involvement, and affective organisational commitment. Brooke, Russell and Price (1988, p. 143) found that employees; "are able to distinguish between the extent to which they like their job (satisfaction), the degree to which they are absorbed in or preoccupied with their job (involvement) and the degree of attachment or loyalty they feel toward their employing organisation (commitment)". Their results show that variables such as routinisation, role stress, work involvement, kinship responsibility and pay are related differently to each of the three attitudinal variables; job satisfaction, job involvement and affective organisational commitment.

Agho, Mueller, and Price (1993) Revised Model of Satisfaction

In 1993, Agho, Mueller and Price proposed a *Revised Model of Satisfaction*, based on the model of satisfaction embedded in Price and Mueller's (1981, 1986) causal model of turnover. They defined Job satisfaction as "the extent to which employees like their work" (Agho et al., 1993, p.1007). Job satisfaction studies date back to the 1930s when Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) proposed that job satisfaction increased productivity. More recent studies of job satisfaction relate it to employee absenteeism, commitment, and turnover (Brooke & Price, 1989; Price & Mueller, 1981). Job satisfaction is one of the most studied concepts in organisational research (Agho et al., 1993).

According to Agho et al., (1993) criticisms of Price and Mueller's (1981; 1986) model include the following: First, the model does not include variables such as role conflict, supervisory support, and task significance; Second, the model does not examine the effect of opportunity on job satisfaction. The causal model included opportunity, but

the model studied opportunity impact on turnover only, and not on job satisfaction (Agho et al., 1993). It is necessary to include opportunity in research on job satisfaction, as higher numbers of alternative jobs result in lower levels of job satisfaction (Hulin et al. 1985); Thirdly, Price and Mueller's model does not consider the influence of personality variables such as negative affectivity and positive affectivity, on satisfaction; Finally, Price and Mueller's model does not consider interaction effects between variables (Agho et al., 1993).

The revised causal model proposed by Agho et al. (1993) incorporates the four criticisms above by means of the following revisions: first, the following variables are retained in the revised model: routinisation, pay, role overload, integration, distributive justice, promotional opportunity (or internal labour market*), instrumental communication (or role ambiguity*), professionalism (work motivation*), and centralisation (autonomy*) (Agho et al., 1993).

* These terms are used in the revised model-.

The second revision introduces five new variables namely, supervisory support, conditions of role conflict, task significance, and the personality characteristics of positive affectivity and negative affectivity (Agho et al., 1993). Thirdly the "interaction effects of job related stress and social support on job satisfaction" is taken into account (Agho et al., 1993, p.1010). This examination specially considers interaction effects of three social support variables (supervisory support, kinship responsibility and integration), and three job related stress variables (role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) (Agho et al., 1993). Agho et al. (1993) make the assumption that; "job-related stress will not adversely affect the employee's job satisfaction as long as they receive adequate assistance from their supervisors, co workers, or family members" (p. 1010). See table 2.2 for definitions of determinants in the revised causal model.

<i>Determinant</i>	<i>Definition</i>
<i>Autonomy</i>	The amount of freedom employees have to make job-related decisions (p. 1010)
<i>Centralization</i>	How power is distributed in an organisation (p. 1010)

Table 2.2: Revised Causal Model Definitions (Agho et al., 1993)

In the test of the revised causal model, two questionnaires were administered to healthcare employees at a Veteran Administration Medical Centre with a three month interval between testing for determinants and testing for the dependent variable (Agho et al., 1993). The results of testing the revised model were as follows: First of all, “Satisfaction is shown to be a relatively stable phenomenon, that is, employees who are satisfied with their jobs today are more likely to feel the same in the near future” (Agho et al., p.1015). Second; opportunity and routinization have significant negative causal effects on satisfaction, while work motivation, distributive justice and positive affectivity are found to have significant positive effects. Autonomy, task significance, role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, integration, supervisory support, internal labour market, and negative affectivity had no significant effect on satisfaction (Agho et al., 1993, p.1015). Third, the findings did not show that the impact of job related stress on employees’ job satisfaction is affected by the social support employees receive from their supervisors, from the friends they work with, or from their families (Agho et al., 1993). Finally the findings enhanced the idea that job satisfaction is not only related to inside job factors, it is also related to employees’ personality factors, like positive affectivity and work motivation.

Kim, Price and Mueller’s (1996) Determinants of intent to stay based on the causal model

In 1996, Kim, Price and Mueller conducted research on intent to stay amongst physicians at a US Air Force hospital using the causal model. This research site and sample allowed the causal model to be generalised in three ways: first, there was a focus on a relatively unstudied population, namely physicians. Most physicians are self-employed, therefore most studies of intent and turnover in healthcare organisations exclude them (Kim et al., 1996). Second, this sample was predominantly male. The causal model has been mostly tested on a female sample. Previous samples

include: nurses in private hospitals (Price & Mueller, 1981); all employees in private hospitals (Price & Mueller, 1986), and all employees in a government hospital (Agho et al., 1993). Third, using a military site also helps to generalise the causal model (Kim et al., 1996). Intent to stay was the independent variable in this study, because research has indicated that intent to stay is moderately related to turnover (Steel & Ovalle, 1984). The other reason for using intent to stay rather than turnover was the sample itself. Career intent is the extent to which an individual plans to spend his/her working life within the military (Kim et al., 1996). The physicians in this study can work outside the military, however physicians who plan to remain within the military until retirement are referred to as “career employees” that is why Kim et al. (1996) used the term “career intent” to describe them. Kim et al. (1996) assumed that the term is closely related to “intent to stay” in an organisation. Furthermore, military medical personnel in the sample had signed contracts to remain in the military to repay the government for their medical education; therefore studying their actual turnover was not possible because they owe the Air Force about four years of service (Kim et al., 1996).

Price and Mueller’s earlier work did not incorporate the moderating variables of values into the model (Price, 2004), however most of the turnover literature supports the importance of values’ moderating effects, thus Kim et al. (1996) investigated moderating effects in the causal model. Autonomy and social support were hypothesised to moderate the effect of job stress on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Kim et al., 1996). However there was no supporting evidence for the moderating effects of autonomy and social support (Price, 2004).

Kim et al. (1996) divide the determinants of intent to stay into four classes: Environmental, individual, exogenous (structural) and endogenous. Environmental variables include kinship responsibility and opportunity. Kinship responsibility is assumed to increase intent to stay directly, whereas opportunity has both direct and indirect effects on intent to stay. Greater opportunity is assumed to decrease intent to stay (Kim et al., 1996).

The individual determinants include general training, job motivation, met expectations, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity. According to the model,

general training has an indirect effect on intent to stay through job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Kim et al., 1996). Job motivation is assumed to increase job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Kim et al., 1996). Similarly, met expectations and both positive and negative affectivity directly affect job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, and thus ultimately affect intent to stay (Kim et al., 1996).

According to Kim et al. (1996) the final nine exogenous determinants are structural variables: autonomy, distributive justice, job hazards, job stress, pay, professional growth, promotional chances, routinisation, and social support. The model has three endogenous, intervening variables: job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and job search. The model includes no demographic variables; they were used as control variables (Kim et al., 1996).

The results of Kim et al.'s (1996) multivariate analysis are as follows: when satisfaction is regressed on the exogenous and demographic variables, seven of the variables are statistically significant: job motivation, met expectations, promotional chances, positive affectivity, family support and supervisory support. All have a positive effect on satisfaction, whereas routinisation has a negative significant effect on satisfaction (Kim et al., 1996). When commitment is regressed on satisfaction, the exogenous variables and the demographic variables, four of the variables are statistically significant: satisfaction, promotional chances and met expectations have a positive impact on commitment, while role conflict has a negative impact (Kim et al., 1996). As far as the results for the regressed job search on commitment, satisfaction, the exogenous variables and the demographic variables are concerned, three of the variables are statistically significant: satisfaction and commitment have a negative impact, whereas opportunity has a positive impact (Kim et al., 1996). Finally, three variables are statistically significant when intent to stay is regressed on the causal model, job search and opportunity have a negative impact, whereas the impact of commitment is positive (Kim et al., 1996).

Additionally, Kim et al. (1996) found that kinship responsibility does not have a significant effect on intent to stay, because the sample in this study is male physicians. Kim et al.'s (1996, p. 972) research demonstrate that:

An additive model has been found to explain intent to stay quite well... interaction effects undoubtedly exist in many situations, and no argument is made that such effects do not exist. What is indicated by the results of this research, instead, is that the emphasis on interaction effects for values and for the buffering of stress may be somewhat exaggerated.

Price's (2001) Causal Model of Turnover

In 2001, after almost two decades since the introduction of the causal model of turnover, Price presented a reflection on the determinants of voluntary turnover. Price (2001) divided variables as follows: Exogenous variables include environmental variables, individual variables and structural variables (See figure 2.2) (Some of these exogenous variables have been defined by Price and Mueller (1981) in tables 2.1, and table 2.2. while table 2.3 contains the remaining definitions of the elements making up the causal model according to Price (2001)). The endogenous variables include job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, search behaviour and intent to stay. These are described in some detail below.

Exogenous variables

Environmental variables (opportunity and kinship responsibility): Opportunity is hypothesised to affect turnover directly and also has an indirect negative effect through the mediation of job satisfaction (Price, 2001). It is proposed that kinship responsibility produces fewer turnovers. However there is a question of whether kinship responsibility applies equally to men and women (Price, 2001).

Individual variables (general training, job involvement, positive affectivity and negative affectivity): It is suggested that general training increases turnover. Job involvement decreases turnover by its positive impact on job satisfaction (Price, 2001). Positive and negative affectivity not only directly affect job satisfaction, but may also contaminate the measures of other exogenous variables; therefore affectivity variables must be controlled in turnover research (Price, 2001).

Structural variables (Autonomy, justice, stress, pay, promotional chances, routinisation, and social support): Autonomy is hypothesised to decrease turnover by its positive effect on job satisfaction (Price, 2001). Distributive justice decreases

turnover by its positive impact on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Price, 2001). Job stress in its four components (resource inadequacy, role ambiguity, role conflict and workload) increases turnover because of its negative effect on job satisfaction (Price, 2001). It is proposed that pay decreases turnover through the intervening variable job satisfaction (Price, 2001). Promotional chances are predicted to decrease turnover indirectly, by means of positive impact on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Price, 2001). Routinisation is expected to decrease turnover by its positive impact on job satisfaction (Price, 2001). Social support includes supervisory and peer support. Supervisory support is hypothesised to decrease turnover through its positive influence on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Price, 2001). Additionally, it is predicted that peer support decreases turnover through its positive impact on job satisfaction (Price, 2001).

According to Price (2001), the question that arises is how the structural variables impact turnover through affective organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Some scholars hypothesise that selected structural variables only have an impact on job satisfaction, while other variables only have an impact on affective organisational commitment (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Whereas other scholars hypothesise that all structural variables have an impact on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Kim et al., 1996). A meta-analysis undertaken by Gaertner (1999) found that three structural variables (promotional opportunity, distributive justice, and supervisory support) have impacts on both job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. While six structural variables (peer support, workload, role conflict, role ambiguity, autonomy, and routinisation) only had impacts on job satisfaction. Price (2001) adopts Gaertner's (1999) position in the causal model. A number of interaction effects between exogenous variables have been examined, however the results of the research provide little or no evidence for any interactions. Therefore the causal model proposed by Price (2001) is an additive model.

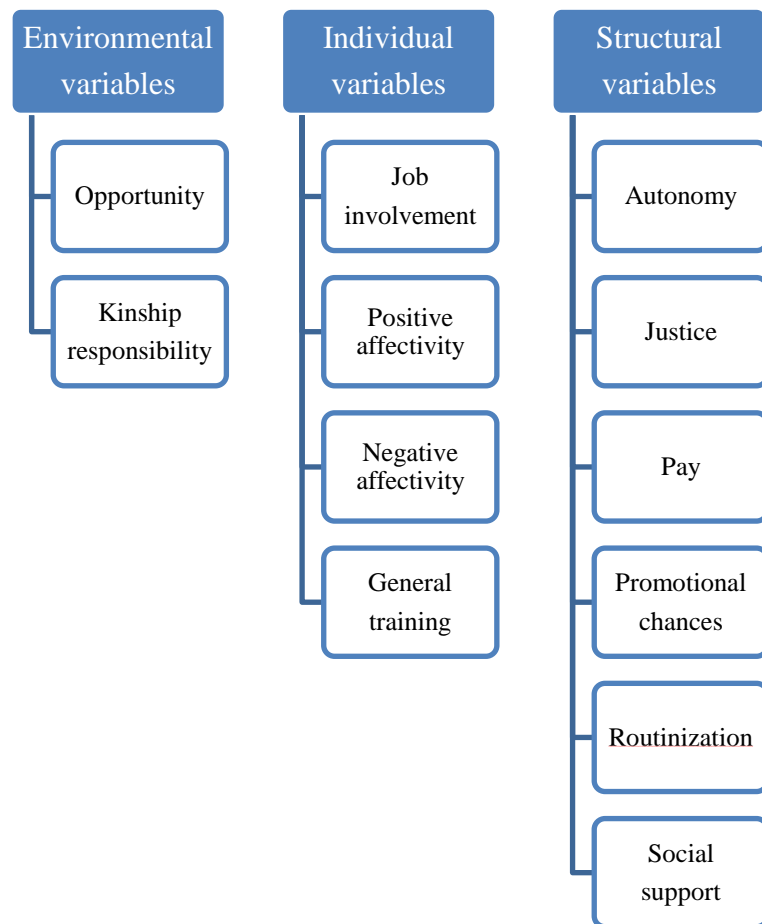


Figure 2.2: Exogenous variables in the Causal Model of turnover

<i>Determinant</i>	<i>Definition</i>
<i>Job involvement</i>	The willingness to exert effort on the job (p. 604)
<i>Positive affectivity</i>	Dispositional tendency to experience pleasant emotional state (p. 604)
<i>Negative affectivity</i>	Dispositional tendency to experience unpleasant emotional state (p. 605)
<i>Job stress</i>	The extent to which job duties are difficult to fulfil (p.606)
<i>Resources inadequacy</i>	Lack of means to perform a job (p. 606)
<i>Role ambiguity</i>	Unclear job obligations (p. 606)
<i>Role conflict</i>	Inconsistent job obligations (p. 606)
<i>Workload or role overload</i>	Amount of effort required by a job (p. 606)

<i>Social support</i>	Assistance with job related problems (p. 607)
<i>Search behaviour</i>	The degree to which employees are looking for other jobs (p. 608).

Table 2.3: Definitions of Exogenous variables according to Price (2001)

Endogenous variables

The intervening endogenous variables include: job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, search behaviour, and intent to stay. Job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment have a negative impact on turnover (Price, 2001). Search behaviour is hypothesised to increase turnover, whilst, intent to stay is predicted to decrease turnover (Price, 2001).

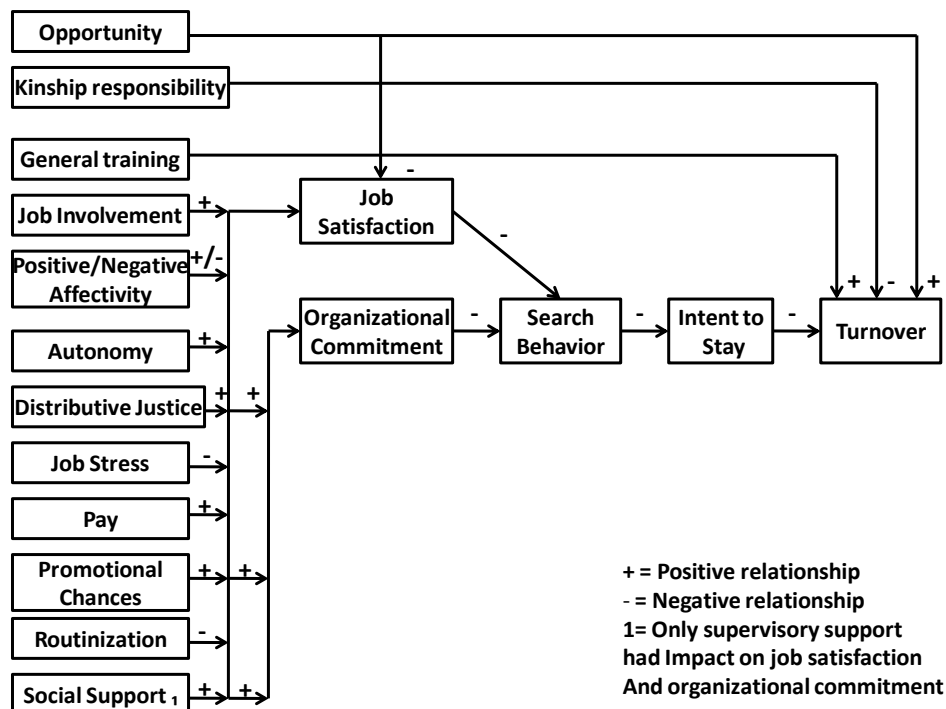


Figure 2.3: Causal Model of Turnover (Price, 2001, p. 602)

2.3.8 Steers and Mowday (1981) Comprehensive Model

Another key model of employee turnover presented in the 1980s is the *Comprehensive Model*. Steers and Mowday (1981) combined all previous turnover models into a single comprehensive model. They propose the following general sequence for voluntary turnover: First, individual values and job expectations conceptualised as met expectations are claimed to influence employees' affective

responses to the job. These affective responses are specified as job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and job involvement. Second, the affective responses influence an employee's intentions to stay or quit. Finally, the intention of staying or quitting ultimately leads to the actual behaviour of staying or quitting (Steers & Mowday, 1981). They suggest that some employees might decide to quit their jobs even when they do not have an alternative job. Steers and Mowday (1981) presume that this direct turnover is a result of the social welfare system that economically supports the unemployed.

2.3.9 Rusbult and Farrell (1983) Investment Model

The *Investment Model* proposed by Rusbult and Farrell (1983) demonstrates the effects of investment factors: investments, rewards, costs and alternatives on job satisfaction, job commitment and turnover. High job rewards and low job costs result in higher job satisfaction (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). High rewards, low costs, low quality of alternative jobs, and large investment size result in higher commitment (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). The impact of some of these factors (job rewards, job costs and investment size) may differ over time. Job rewards show a constant impact on job satisfaction and commitment, while the impact of job costs and investment size on job satisfaction and job commitment increase over time (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983). According to Rusbult and Farrell (1983) change over time in each investment model factor determines turnover; "It is the *process of change*—declining rewards, increasing costs, divestiture (i.e., declining investment size), and improving alternative quality—that distinguishes between those who stay and those who leave" (Rusbult and Farrell, 1983, p.437). Furthermore they found that "the most important process of change in influencing turnover decisions is the process of declining commitment." (Rusbult & Farrel, 1983, p.437)

2.3.10 Sheridan and Abelson's (1983) Cusp Catastrophe Model

Sheridan and Abelson (1983) introduced a new approach to employee turnover through their *Cusp Catastrophe Model*. The temporal dynamics of the model suggest that leavers experience lower affective organisational commitment than stayers do prior to termination (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983). The model emphasises two withdrawal determinants: affective organisational commitment and job tension. The model suggests that leavers' perceptions of job tension and affective organisational

commitment appear to cross the threshold levels prior to the actual date of termination (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983).

2.3.11 Jackofsky's (1984) Integrated Process Model

A new perspective to conceptualising employee turnover was introduced by Jackofsky (1984) in his *Integrated Process Model*. Jackofsky (1984) draws attention to the relationship between an employee's job performance and turnover. According to Jackofsky (1984), job performance is directly related to various forms of employee turnover and to precursors of turnover. Jackofsky (1984) found a negative linear relationship between employee job performance and turnover.

2.3.12 Hulin's (1991) Integrative Adaptation and Withdrawal Model

In 1991, Hulin presented a different approach to employee turnover research by introducing the *Integrative Adaptation and Withdrawal Model*. This model states that dissatisfaction with the job in general or with an element in the job triggers a series of behavioural and cognitive responses that lead to adaptive behaviour, which is a set of subsequent withdrawal behaviours (i.e. lateness, absenteeism, transfer and turnover). In other words, the withdrawing employee demonstrates; "a progression of withdrawal from the very mild and easy to the difficult and decisive" (Hulin, 1991, p. 11).

2.3.13 Steel's (2002) Evolutionary Search Model of employee turnover

In 2002, Steel introduced the *Evolutionary Search Model* of employee turnover. Steel (2002) proposed that job search progresses through three stages:

- 1) Passive scanning: employees who are not planning to leave may become engaged in some form of passive scanning, such as casual monitoring of labour market information. Data gathered in this stage rely on incidental information, the information resulting from passive scanning may be misleading at some points because it is fragmented and not focused (Steel, 2002).
- 2) Focused search: at this stage the job search becomes more systematic; the aim of this search is the "identification of concrete job leads" (Steel, 2002, p.349), in other words, to identify actual employment opportunities.
- 3) Contacting prospective employers: communication begins between the individual and selected choices of the employment market. This gives the individual feedback on

the realities of the market. At this point, self-evaluation of employment opportunities may increase or decrease (Steel, 2002).

The model also includes a two-component mechanism to the job search process:

- The first component is resource substitutability: an individual's financial considerations influence the possibility of job search, that is to say, individuals will perform a job search unless they have an alternative source of income (Steel, 2002);
- The second component concerns spontaneous offers: having a spontaneous offer provides the individual with a form of instant mobility. Consequently, the individual will not need to perform a job search. The evolutionary search model hypothesises that if an individual does not have either resource substitutability or a spontaneous offer, they will conduct a job search. Resource substitutability and spontaneous offer help to explain why some individuals do not perform job searches (Steel, 2002).

According to Steel (2002) a job search is not a static event; rather it is a process during which dynamic learning occurs. Therefore, Steel argues that traditional turnover research methods should be reconsidered, because such methods depend on surveys that are administered at a static point in time, while job search (which is a key element of any turnover process) is an evolving process (Steel, 2002). Furthermore the surveyed employees are not likely to be at the same point of the dynamic job search process, which will affect the survey results, in particular the section that considers perceived job alternatives (Steel, 2002). Some employees may have a very good idea about job alternatives because they have conducted a focused search, or contacted employers, while other employees may not have an accurate idea about job alternatives as they have not undertaken any search. Thus the perception of alternative jobs depends on the stage of the job search process. The perception of alternative jobs is very close to employment market realities at the last stage of the job search process, when individuals contact potential employers, and the perception of alternative jobs could be misleading at the first stage, when individuals depend on fragmented information or employment adverts (Steel, 2002).

Steel (2002) suggests improving the static research design of turnover research by making it more time-dependent in order to improve the "conceptual-empirical fit" in turnover research (Steel, 2002, p.352). An example of such time-dependent research

design is Blau's (1993; 1994) research. Blau considers different forms of job search and accounts for these forms in his research design (i.e. surveys' questions). According to Blau (1993; 1994) the more intensive forms of job search (active searches such as sending out CVs) are better predictor of employee turnover than less intensive forms of job search (preparatory search such as reading employment adverts). Blau (1993; 1994) uses self-reports of job search behaviour to account for the differences between individuals in the job search process. Perceptions of leavers are found to be more accurate and closer to the labour market realities compared with perceptions of stayers (Steel, 2002).

Mobley (1982, p.135-136) remarked; "if we were to understand the process of turnover more fully, we need repeated measures of multiple antecedents over time and statistical analyses which include the temporal dimension." According to Steel (2002, p.352); "Many turnover scholars agree in principle with Mobley on the desirability of such work, but the practical realities associated with conducting these kinds of studies make this goal a daunting challenge."

2.3.14 Kammeyer-Mueller et al.'s (2005) temporal shifts in the turnover process

Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005) propose a turnover model that incorporates dynamic predictor measures in order to examine the role of temporal shifts in employee turnover. The model shows the contrast between early and dynamic conceptualisation of the turnover process (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005). They chose the participants of this study to be organisational newcomers at time one to provide a starting point to the temporal analysis. "Tracking new comers over time permits an examination of the progression of attitudes and perceptions from their formation early after hire until they ultimately result in the employee's decision to stay or leave" (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005, p.645). They include 15 turnover determinants that are theoretically expected to vary with time.

Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005, p. 645) consider turnover hazard, which they define as; "a survival analysis term, reflects not only the probability of turnover but also the expected speed of turnover." They distributed five surveys to the same group of employees at different points in time; the initial survey was distributed to recently hired employees within their first month of employment and additional surveys were

distributed every four months for a period of 20 months. The results of the first survey (the early model) contrasted with the other four surveys (the dynamic model); “The contrast of an early model to dynamic model revealed the powerful role of additional time waves in improving the predication and understanding of turnover” (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005, p.654). The results show that the measures (perceived cost of turnover or financial embeddedness, affective organisational commitment and critical events or shocks as introduced by Lee and Mitchell (1994) can predict turnover soon after employment. Occupational unemployment rates, job satisfaction, and search for alternative jobs become significant measures when measured over time (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005). According to Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005, p.654); “The importance of search for alternatives as a mediator of the relationship between attitudes and turnover were supported only in the dynamic results”. Although Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005) used a dynamic method to measure the effect of search for alternatives on employee turnover, as per Steel’s (2002) suggestions, they found “the role of perceived alternatives in the turnover experience to be minimal” (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005, p.655), and suggested that the “weak relationships between perceived alternatives and turnover found in previous research were probably not due to methodological problems” (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005, p.655).

The dynamic model shows the difference over time of job satisfaction and commitment, leavers experienced a decrease in job satisfaction and commitment over time, compared to stayers. Leavers also experienced an increase over time on withdrawal and search for alternatives (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005). Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005) use a predictive technique to measure the impact of critical events on employee turnover and the results reveal that such critical events could be related to later turnover, similar to Lee and Mitchell’s (1994) results. Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005) state that even with the dynamic model, the ability to predict turnover was modest: “The static model was by itself quite informative even when compared with the dynamic model” (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005, p.654).

2.3.15 Chen et al.’s (2011) Power of Momentum Model

Chen et al. (2011) proposed the *Power of Momentum* model, which explains the dynamic relationship between change in job satisfaction and employee turnover intentions. Job satisfaction is found to be negatively related to turnover intentions and

actual turnover, however it has not been “sufficiently explained why, how, and when changes in job satisfaction exert unique influence on turnover decisions” (Chen, et al., 2011, p.159). Recent reviews of the literature show that the majority of turnover and job satisfaction research have static approach and failed to catch the dynamic nature of these concepts (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee and Eberly, 2008; Steel, 2002). According to Chen et al. (2011), any change in job satisfaction, such as systematic improvement or decline account for change in employees’ turnover intentions. Future-oriented work expectations partially mediate the relationship between job satisfaction change and turnover intentions. Chen et al. (2011) also propose that organisational tenure moderates the relationship between job satisfaction change and work expectations. According to Chen et al., (2011, p.163) “Job satisfaction change is a continuous construct that can vary from highly negative (decreasing) to highly positive (increasing) trajectories”.

2.3.16 Summary of job satisfaction models

Job satisfaction models are based on March and Simon’s (1958) perceived desirability of movement concept. Porter and Steer’s (1973) met expectation model views job satisfaction as expectations met; they do not propose specific determinants for job satisfaction, rather they propose the idea that satisfied employees have their expectations met, and these expectations vary among employees. The met expectation model has not been widely supported (Mobley et al., 1979). Mobley (1977) and Mobley et al.’s (1979) intermediate linkage model suggests several steps that link job satisfaction with turnover. Job satisfaction has a negative consistent relationship with turnover; however this relationship is not particularly strong (Mobley et al., 1979). The various steps proposed in the intermediate linkage model are an attempt to move beyond job satisfaction as the only determinant of employee turnover. Hom and Griffeth (1995, p.57) characterize this model as doing more than any other turnover theory in “further understanding of the withdrawal process”.

Muchinsky and Morrow (1980) highlight the effects of economic variables on how individual and work related factors predict turnover. According to Steel and Lounsbury (2009, p.273) “Muchinsky and Morrow’s (1980) framework offers a particularly telling analysis of the effects of labour market mechanisms on turnover decision”. Price and Mueller’s (1981; 1986) causal model of turnover proposes

several determinants of employee turnover and presents job satisfaction as a variable that mediates between the determinants and turnover along with other mediating variables such as commitment and intent to leave (Price, 2001). The causal model focuses on the determinants and their influence on satisfaction and turnover. Price and Mueller's (1981; 1986) model of turnover is unique in the sense that it views turnover from a sociological perspective (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009).

Steers and Mowday (1981) view job satisfaction as one of the affective responses along with affective organisational commitment and job involvement, which are influenced by individual values and job expectations. Soon after, Rusbult and Farrell's (1983) investment model introduced a new perspective to employee turnover, by demonstrating the impact of factors such as investments, rewards, costs, and alternatives on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Sheridan and Abelson's (1983) new approach, represented by the cusp catastrophe model, focuses on the decrease in affective organisational commitment level prior to turnover. The effect of job performance on turnover was introduced by Jackofsky (1984) in the integrated process model. Jackofsky (1984) identify a linear negative relationship between job performance and turnover. In 1991, Hulin proposes the integrative adaptation and withdrawal model, which demonstrates subsequent withdrawal behaviours, such as lateness, absenteeism, transfer, and turnover that result from dissatisfaction. Steel (2002) emphasizes the importance of using dynamic research methods in order to find a better fit between concepts and empirical research in employee turnover. Steel (2002) also addressed the importance of using dynamic research methods to evaluate the job search stage, which will better explain employees' evaluation of job alternatives. Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005) create a dynamic research method to test employee turnover intentions as per Steel's (2002) suggestions. Kammeyer-Mueller et al.'s (2005) model shows the contrast between early and dynamic conceptualisations of the turnover process, however according to Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005) even with such a dynamic model, the ability to predict turnover is modest. The static model of turnover research by itself can be quite informative, even when compared with the dynamic model (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005). Finally, Chen et al. (2011) introduce the power of momentum model, which establishes the dynamic relationship between change in job satisfaction and employee

turnover intentions. This model views job satisfaction as a dynamic, consciously changing phenomenon, rather than a static phenomenon.

The general notion found in many of the job satisfaction models is that job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, alternative search and intentions to leave are intervening variables between determinants of turnover such as individual variables, work-related (structural variables), non-work related (environmental variables), economic variables and actual turnover (Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1979; Price and Mueller, 1981; 1986; Brooke et al., 1988; Price, 2001; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Steel and Lounsbury (2009, p.275) demonstrate that models of turnover process are constructed around three core mechanisms: 1) attitudinal variables (job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment), 2) job search mechanisms, and 3) turnover intentions. These mechanisms are “the backbone of contemporary turnover theory” (Steel & Lounsbury, 2009, p.275). Therefore research on employee turnover in new contexts needs to account for these core mechanisms.

2.4 Employee Turnover Models

Embeddedness Models

2.4.1 Lee and Mitchell's (1994) Unfolding Model:

One of the most comprehensive and influential models of voluntary employee turnover is the *Unfolding Model*, which was introduced by Lee and Mitchell (1994). They propose that voluntary turnover is not always a result of accumulated job dissatisfaction. They suggest five paths that employees might follow prior to turnover; these paths unfold over time due to many different reasons over and above job satisfaction. The theoretical basis that Lee and Mitchell (1994) depend on in their unfolding model is different from traditional turnover models. According to Lee et al. (1996), traditional turnover theories included three steps: first, employees experience job dissatisfaction; second, this job dissatisfaction leads to a search for alternative job opportunities; and third, employees evaluate the alternative job offers using the Subjective Expected Utility (SEU) decision model, which emphasises rational choice. However Lee and Mitchell's unfolding model (1994)

is based on the image theory (Beach, 1990). The image theory is a generic decision making model based on screening rather than choosing between options (Beach, 1990). This theory is based on three types of images: value, trajectory, and strategic. Value images are the set of values, beliefs and standards that identify an individual. Trajectory images are the goals that the individual is trying to achieve. Strategic images are the set of strategies and behavioural tactics that the individual believes will help in attaining his/her goals. Any option is adopted or rejected depending on its compatibility/fit with these images (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). The image theory concepts were used by Lee and Mitchell (1994) to understand the decision processes of employee turnover, and they suggest the following based on the image theory: first, an event or “shock” causes the employee to pause and think about the meaning or implementation of the event to the job; second, this event may or may not result in thoughts of quitting; third, if quitting becomes an alternative, the employee may or may not consider job alternatives. A compatibility judgment may be used instead of subjective expected utility that is used in most traditional models (Lee et al., 1996). These different possibilities form the basis for Lee and Mitchell’s (1994) decision paths for voluntary employee turnover.

Lee and Mitchell (1994) introduced new concepts to the literature of employee turnover; namely *shock* and *script*. A **shock** is a specific event that initiates thoughts of quitting. Lee and Mitchell define “shock” as; “A shock to the system is theorized to be a very distinguishable event that jars employees toward deliberate judgments about their job and perhaps to voluntarily quit their job. A shock is an event that generates information or has meaning about a person’s job” (Lee and Mitchell, 1994, p.60). “A shock is a particular, jarring event that initiates the psychological analysis involved in quitting a job” (Lee et al. 1999, p.451). Shocks may be expected or unexpected; positive, negative, or neutral events that promote thought about a person’s job (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). A shock can be internal or external to the person who experiences it (Lee et al., 1999). People compare shocks and their surrounding circumstances with their images, their values, goals, and how they plan to achieve these goals, and if the two are incompatible, thoughts of quitting occur (Lee et al., 1999). Lee and Mitchell’s (1994) categorise types of shock as follows:

- a. Personal events that are external to the job, such as having a spouse transferred, winning the lottery, or adopting a child.
- b. Personal events that are job or work related, such as receiving a job offer, missing a promotion, or having an argument with the boss.
- c. Organisational events, such as scandals, downsizing, or corporate takeovers.

A *script* is a psychological mechanism that results in routinised and programmed behaviour (Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p. 71). A script is also defined as a “pre-existing plan of action” (Lee et al., 1999, p. 451) and can be based on past experiences, readings, observation of others, or social expectations (Lee et al., 1999).

Lee and Mitchell (1994) also use other concepts in explaining the unfolding model, which are: *Image violation* which occurs when employees’ values and goals do not fit with the values and goals of the organisation or those reflected by the shock, and *lower levels of job satisfaction*, which occur when over time an employee realises that his/her job is not providing the intellectual, emotional or financial benefits desired. Finally *job search*, which is searching for alternative job opportunities and evaluating them (Lee et al., 1999). Lee and Mitchell (1994) propose five paths that employees might follow prior to turnover:

Decision Path One: a shock (an environmental event causes the start of a quitting script) to the system happens; an employee relates this shock to a similar shock, situation, and response. Therefore the response is quick and does not require a lot of mental deliberation. The person who has experienced the shock leaves without considering his/her current attachment to the organisation and without considering job alternatives (Lee et al., 1999). The main aspects of decision path one are the “shock”, “a match with a rule of with previous decision situations”, and “script driven decision” (Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p.64). The shock results in the enactment of a script. This decision path does not involve image violation, consideration of job dissatisfaction or evaluation of job alternatives (Lee & Mitchell, 1994).

Decision Path Two: a shock to the system happens, the employee has no personal or situational experiences that are similar to the shock, and therefore there is no matching script. The shock promotes the employee to re-evaluate his/her attachment to the organisation and, as a result, decides to stay or quit. This decision path involves a

shock and image violation. There is no matching script and no job alternatives (Lee & Mitchell, 1994).

Decision Path Three: a shock to the system occurs, there is no matching script. This shock signals to an employee to evaluate whether working for another organisation is more suitable for the employee. This decision path involves a shock, no matching script, the presence of a specific job alternative, image compatibility and assessment of alternatives (Lee & Mitchell, 1994).

Decision Path Four: there is no shock involved. Over time an employee's satisfaction may decrease with his/her job or with working with the organisation and he/she may come to believe that he/she no longer fits in his/her job because his/her values have been compromised or he/she has not reached his/her goals (Lee et al. 1996). This dissatisfaction happens gradually. Decision path four has two sub paths: Path 4a, when an employee experiences job dissatisfaction and decides to quit without having alternative job offers. Path 4a is characterised by image violation and dissatisfaction. Path 4b when an employee experiences job dissatisfaction that leads to lower affective organisational commitment, job search, evaluation of alternative offers and finally quitting; Path 4b, is characterised by image violation, dissatisfaction, job search, evaluation of alternatives, and an offer in hand (Lee et al., 1996). Decision path 4b represents the processes presented by most traditional turnover theories; it constitutes a very rational choice process (Lee et al., 1999).

According to Lee and Mitchell (1994), the time required for an employee to follow each decision path varies. For example, decision path one takes less time to occur than decision path four (Lee et al., 1996). Figure 2.4 represents the decisions paths of the unfolding model

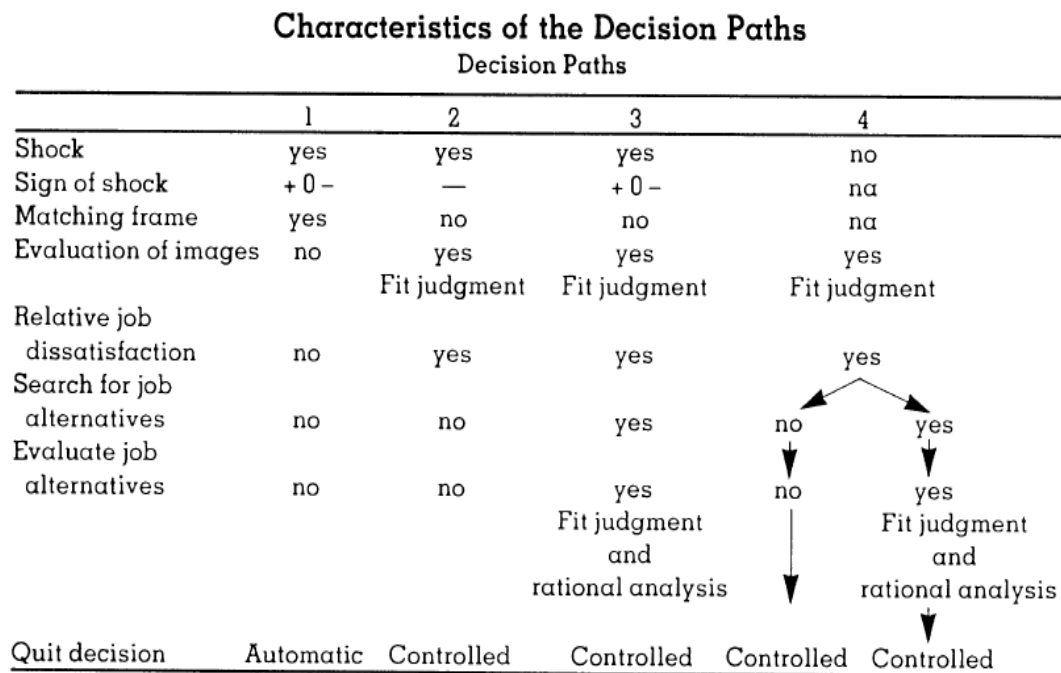


Figure 2.4: Characteristics of the decision paths (Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p.60)

In the first empirical test of the unfolding model Lee et al. (1996) state that managers can try to anticipate, manage and alter the quitting decision if the employee decides to leave due to a shock related to the immediate job, which occurs mostly in decision path three and which unfolds more slowly than decision paths one and two. Managers may also influence the quitting decision process in path four, managers may anticipate, manage and alter departure through influencing employee satisfaction and commitment (Lee et al., 1996). Lee et al. (1999) propose some additions to the unfolding model that include the following main points or characteristics: first, the existence of scripts may not be limited to decision path one, instead they may coexist with other factors in paths two, three, 4a and 4b. Second, they suggest that job search and evaluation of alternative job offers should be separated, and considered as two separate factors. Third, they predict that paths one and two occur significantly more quickly than 4b. Fourth, they suggest that different shock characteristics are associated with each path: for example path one is positively related to the occurrence of personal shocks, while path two is positively related to organisational shocks (such as mergers, transfers and colleagues' dismissal) and personal shocks (e.g. family problems and liability suits); path three is positively related to organisational and unsolicited job offer shocks. Finally, they hypothesise that job satisfaction is higher in

path three than in path 4b and negatively correlated with image violation (See figure 2.5)

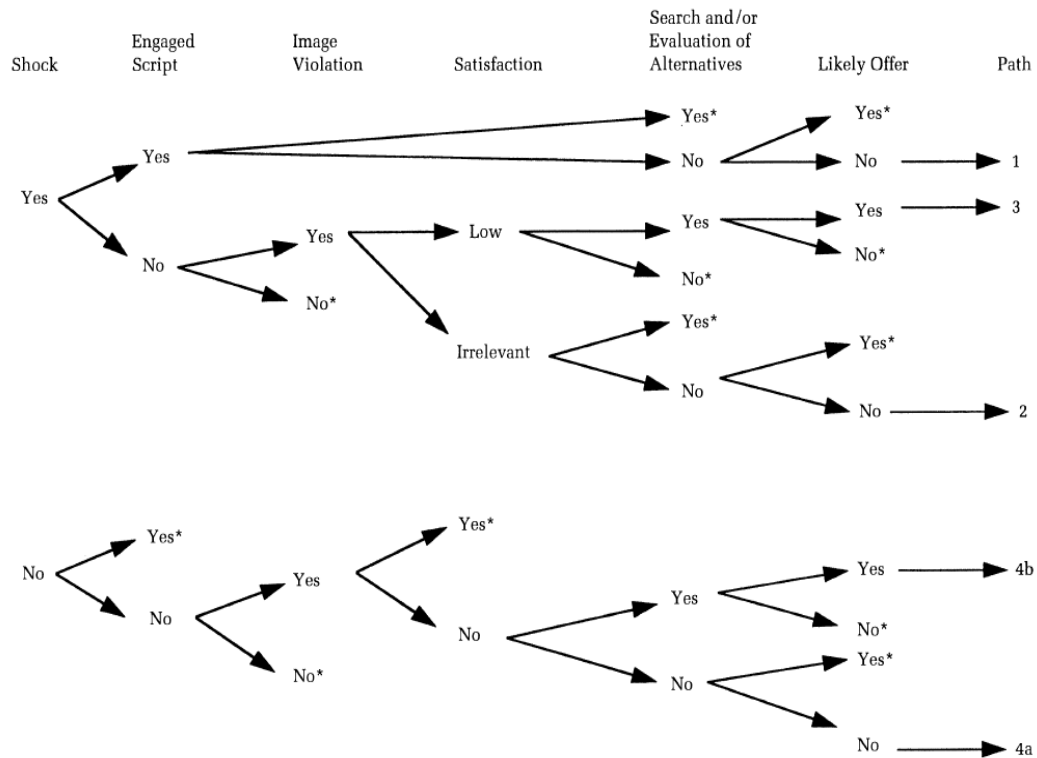


Figure 2.5: The unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee et al, 1999, p. 451)

2.4.2 Mitchell et al.'s (2001) Job Embeddedness Model:

A new construct of employee turnover that focuses on why people stay rather than why people leave was introduced by Mitchell et al. in 2001. **Job Embeddedness** is the totality of forces that constrain people from leaving their current employment (Mitchell et al., 2001). Mitchell et al. (2001, p.1116) observe that; “Job embeddedness especially the off the job components represent a new perspective on why people stay in their job.” The job embeddedness model has three critical aspects:

- 1) “The extent to which people have links to other people or activities” (Mitchell et al, 2001, p.1104).
- 2) “The extent to which their jobs and communities are similar to or fit with the other aspects in their life spaces” (Mitchell et al, 2001, p.1104).
- 3) “The ease with which links can be broken what they would give up if they left, especially if they had to physically move to other cities or homes” (Mitchell et al, 2001, p.1104).

These critical points are labelled by Mitchell and colleagues *links*, *fit*, and *sacrifice* respectively, and defined as follows:

Links: “Formal or informal connections between a person and institutions or other people” (Mitchell et al, 2001, p.1104). The more links an individual has with work or non-work friends, the community and the physical environment, the more this individual is bound to his/her job or organisation (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Fit: “an employee’s perceived compatibility or comfort with an organisation and with his or her environment” (Mitchell et al., 2001, p.1104). That is, an employee’s personal values, career goals and plans must fit with the organisational culture and the demand of his/her job knowledge, skills, and abilities. The fit is also with the community and surrounding environment. “The better the fit, the higher the likelihood that an employee will feel professionally and personally tied to an organisation” (Mitchell et al., 2001, p.1104).

Sacrifices: “The perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be forfeited by leaving a job” (Mitchell et al., 2001, p.2001). Examples of sacrifices could be giving up colleagues, changing a healthcare or pension plan, giving up an interesting project, or leaving a community. Basically, the more an employee would give up when leaving an organisation, the harder it will be for him/her to leave (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Each of the three dimensions, fits, links and sacrifices, has an organisational and community component (Mitchell et al., 2001). The focus of this theory is on the totality of embedding forces that keep a person in a job rather than the negative attitudes that promote a person to leave a job (Mitchell et al., 2001). Job embeddedness is negatively correlated with employees’ intent to leave and subsequent voluntary turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001). Job embeddedness is positively related to job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment; it is negatively related to job search and job alternatives (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Job embeddedness can be disaggregated into two components: on-the-job embeddedness (i.e. organisational fit, links, and sacrifice) and off-the-job

embeddedness (i.e. community fits, links, and sacrifice) (Lee et al., 2004). According to Lee and colleagues (2004) off-the-job embeddedness is found to be predictive of voluntary turnover and violation absences, while on-the-job embeddedness is found to be predictive of organisational citizenship and job performance. Off-the-job embeddedness directly affects decision to participate (Lee et al., 2004). According to March and Simon (1958), decision to participate can be explained in terms of perceived desirability of movement and perceived ease of movement. On-the-job embeddedness directly affects the decision to perform (Lee et al., 2004). March and Simon (1958) explain the decision to perform in terms of motivational concepts such as goals, rewards, expectancies, and social control (i.e. norms and group pressure). Lee and colleagues (2004) found that embeddedness components link the decisions to perform and to participate:

“On-the-job embeddedness moderated the positive effect of volitional absences on turnover, the negative effect of job performance on turnover and the negative effect of citizenship on absences: the moderation was such that these effects were stronger for higher than for lower on-the-job embeddedness” (Lee et al., 2004, p.719).

Lee and colleagues (2004) based in their conceptualisation on Hulin’s (1991) *integrative adaptation and withdrawal model* and general withdrawal construct. Withdrawal is theorised to include different behaviours over time, starting with poor citizenship, then decreased job performance, followed by increased absences, and eventually quitting (Hulin, 1991). Lee and colleagues (2004) conceptualised that; “the decision to perform and participate are related, with the decision to perform preceding the decision to participate” (Lee et al., 2004, p.712).

Mitchell et al. (2001, p.1118) suggest using both the unfolding model and job embeddedness to better understand voluntary turnover:

Being less embedded does not push an employee to leave a job as dissatisfaction does (for instance, someone can have a low level of embeddedness but be satisfied with a job). What low levels of embeddedness may do is make employees susceptible to shocks and dissatisfaction if they occur, it is easier to search and/or leave. Thus, understanding how embeddedness might deflect shocks and diminish job search may increase understanding turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001, p.1118).

Therefore shocks interconnect the unfolding model with the job embeddedness model. According to Holtom et al. (2005), in more than 60% of voluntary turnovers that were

examined across multiple industries, the immediate antecedent to leaving was a shock rather than accumulated job dissatisfaction. Holtom and Inderrieden (2006, p.441) observe that, “One way job embeddedness may buffer the effect of shock is by influencing their perception of jarring events”. When employees fit well with the organisation, it will take a stronger shock to cause them to consider quitting (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). For instance, when employees do not experience a strong sense of fit, they might be more sensitive to internal events like appraisals or pay rise announcements; they would concentrate on the event and place high importance on it to interpret their place in the organisation; likewise low fit may also cause employees to be sensitive to external events and their interpretation (Holtom and Inderrieden, 2006). When an employee who has many strong links to the organisation and community experiences a shock, the shock interpretation will be affected by these links or by other people with similar interests and values (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). Job embeddedness is higher among employees who stay than employees who quit, and job embeddedness is higher among employees who quit because of a shock “shock induced leavers” (Holtom and Inderrieden, 2006, p. 445), than employees who quit without a shock “non-shock induced leavers” (Holtom and Inderrieden, 2006).

One implication of links and their effect on shock interpretation is the link to a mentor or a supervisor who could help the employee experiencing the shock to interpret it in a larger context; as a result the shock may be of less importance than if considered without the social support of the mentor (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). Many shocks are organisational in nature, this implies that management can design systems to identify potential shocks and have systems in place to respond to them (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). Managers can increase job embeddedness by increasing employee links; this could be done through the use of teams and assignments of long-term projects (Fogarty, 2000). Managers can increase sacrifice by connecting job rewards to longevity, and finally managers can increase fit by matching employees’ knowledge and skills with job requirements (Lee et al., 2004; Riordan et al., 2001).

Holtom and O’Neil (2004) examine the value of job embeddedness in predicting employee retention in healthcare organisations, and assess whether turnover of nurses is influenced by factors different from those influencing other healthcare employees. (Holtom & O’Neil, 2004) used a longitudinal research design; at stage one of the

research they mailed questionnaires to a random sample of healthcare employees at a certain hospital, and at stage two, one year later, the hospital provided data about voluntary leavers. The questionnaire assessed personal characteristics, job embeddedness, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, job search, job alternatives, and turnover intentions (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004). Their results reveal that:

Job embeddedness predicts turnover over and beyond a combination of perceived desirability of movement measures (job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment) and the perceived ease of movement measures (job alternatives, job search). Thus, job embeddedness assesses new and meaningful variance in turnover in excess of that predicted by the major variables included in almost all the major models of turnover (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004, p.224).

Additionally they found that factors affecting nurses' turnover are similar to those affecting other healthcare employees (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004).

2.5 Expatriate Employee Turnover

This section begins by defining self-initiated expatriates and highlighting the gap in the literature about the turnover of this group of employees. This is followed by a presentation of key studies in this area.

2.5.1 Self-initiated expatriates

Self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) are professionals who choose to expatriate, often with no definite time in mind, and are not expatriating as a result of a transfer by their employer (Harrison et al., 2004). Self-initiated expatriates relocate to a country of their choice to find a job or to start an entrepreneurial activity (Jokinen et al., 2008; Saxenian, 2005). Al Ariss and Crowley-Henry (2013, p.79) define self-initiated expatriates as “internationally mobile individuals, who have moved through their own agency (rather than through an organizationally-assigned expatriation) to another country for an indeterminable duration.” Tharenou (2015) gives a more thorough definition of self-initiated expatriates (SIEs):

“Managers and professionals who decide on their own initiative to expatriate to search for a job abroad, self-fund their expatriation without organisational support, for a temporary but undefined time, likely from over a year up to a decade, for career, professional, lifestyle, cultural and

personal reasons, and usually employed on a host country-contract once there.”

Tharenou’s (2015) definition of self-initiated expatriates is used in this thesis because of its clarity and comprehensiveness to the nature, duration and reasons of self-initiated expatriation.

The phenomenon of self-initiated expatriation is not new, some sort of self-initiated expatriates have been around since medieval times, yet “what is new is the scholarly attention that SIEs have received recently” (Vaiman, Haslberger & Vance, 2015, p. 281). Vaiman, Haslberger and Vance (2015, p. 281) state that as of yet, there is no standard definition of the term “self-initiated expatriate”. Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn (2013, p. 7) examine the problem of definition of self-initiated expatriates and its impact on the research of self-initiated expatriates;

“We still have a somewhat “skewed” understanding of what it means to engage in this form of mobility... The potential connections between existing career and management theory and the SIE experience are poorly understood, as are the implications of SIE within the organisational context.”

Although a number of researchers stress the importance for a standard definition of self-initiated expatriates (ex: Doherty et al., 2013), there is disagreement in attempts at defining self-initiated expatriates, which include first, whether the intention to stay for a limited time should be included as a criterion (Andresen, Bergdolt, Margenfeld, & Dickmann, 2014), second, clarifying the sub-types of self-initiated expatriates (Richardson, McKenna, Dickie, & de Gama, 2013), and third, whether to include immigrants in the definition of self-initiated expatriates (Cerdin & Brewster, 2014). Tharenou’s (2015) article forms a key step in clarifying the definition of self-initiated expatriates. In her review of the literature on the different types of expatriates and migrant workers Tharenou (2015) proposes that there are three major forms of skilled talented professionals and managers who expatriate to take advantage of the attractive opportunities worldwide: first, organisational transfers/international assignees (IA/AEs) (Harrison et al., 2004; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005); Second, self-initiated expatriates (SIE) (Doherty et al., 2013; Cerdin and Selmer, 2014); and Third skilled (im)migrants (SIs) (OECD, 2008; Syed, 2008; Al Ariss et al., 2012). Tharenou’s (2015) definitions and guidelines that distinguish the three types of professionals and

managers who expatriate is a major cornerstone in establishing theoretical clarity in this field.

The demand for skilled employees by foreign countries for economic development and by multinational organisations for their overseas operations continues to grow at a rapid pace (Vaiman et al., 2012; Silvanto and Ryan, 2014). The number of self-initiated expatriates exceeds the number of company-assigned expatriates, especially among Western professionals (Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2008). Although there is a growing interest in self-initiated expatriates, this emerging field remains both under-theorised and under-researched (Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013). According to Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn (2013, p. 7), much of the extant research on self-initiated expatriates draws on specific geographic locations focusing mostly on the experience of self-initiated expatriates from developed countries (e.g. Inkson & Myers, 2003; Richardson & Mallon, 2005), with few exceptions (e.g. Agullo and Egawa, 2009; Al Ariss and Syed, 2011). In addition research has concentrated on specific professions such as academia (e.g. Richardson, 2009) and nursing (e.g. Bozionelos, 2009). There is still a dearth of research on the individual issues faced by self-initiated expatriates in establishing themselves in the host country (Mo & Yong, 2015 p. 37).

2.5.2 Self-initiated expatriates turnover

There is little discussion in the literature about voluntary turnover of self-initiated expatriates (Naumann, 1992). The proportion of skilled workers that return to their home country is unknown (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). The return of self-initiated expatriates to the United States was 24% after five years (OECD, 2008b), and from other developed countries it was around 40-50% within ten years (OECD, 2008a). Most research on the repatriation of self-initiated expatriates has focused on trying to reverse the “brain drain” and to encourage repatriation (Hugo et al., 2003). However according to Tharenou and Caulfield (2010, p.1010), the findings have been limited because “most studies rely on frequency statistics”. The most frequently cited reasons for the intention to repatriate among self-initiated expatriates are the pull of home country life-style and family (Hugo et al., 2003) and the most frequently cited barriers for repatriation are career, professional, financial and business opportunities (Fontes, 2007). Hence, it is the careers of professionals, which embed them abroad (Tharenou

& Caulfield, 2010). Self-initiated expatriates do not normally repatriate because of poor adjustment in the host country, they generally report higher cultural adjustment to host country and higher confidence in their ability to live and work abroad than company-assigned expatriates (Doherty et al., 2008; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) state that there is a deficiency in the study of the repatriation of self-initiated expatriates because there is no research that addresses the impact of embeddedness and shock on the repatriation of self-initiated expatriates.

Two studies on the turnover of self-initiated expatriates are presented below. These two studies form the foundation of examining the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates in this dissertation. The first study is Bozionelos' (2009) research on the turnover intentions of professional self-initiated expatriate nurses in Saudi Arabia. Bozionelos' (2009) research concentrates on self-initiated expatriates in the Arab culture cluster, whose countries provide jobs to a large expatriate workforce (Harry, 2007). The study focuses on expatriate nurses in Saudi Arabia, a country with significant domestic shortage that relies heavily on expatriates to meet the domestic nursing needs (Harry, 2007). More than 95% of nurses employed in Saudi Arabia are expatriates (Pakkiasamy, 2004).

Job dissatisfaction and turnover intent, which are associated with reduced performance and work effort (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001) are considered to be manifestations of expatriate failure, and of concern to organisations that rely heavily on expatriates. Job satisfaction and turnover intent are also key factors in voluntary job turnover. Thus, these two work attitudes are important for organisations that rely on expatriates, especially in healthcare organisations, where neither sub-optimal performance nor turnover of nursing staff can be easily afforded (Bozionelos, 2009). Job satisfaction and turnover intention are also highly related to expatriates' cultural adaptation (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005); "therefore, identifying the antecedents of job satisfaction and turnover intent will advance our knowledge of factors that are associated with expatriation success among non-corporate-sponsored expatriates" (Bozionelos, 2009, p.115).

Bozionelos (2009) investigated a number of factors that could influence job satisfaction and turnover intention, namely: whether the expatriate had attended cross-

cultural training before leaving the home country; protégé experience (being involved in a relationship with a mentor); peer support, and whether the home and host country belonged to different cultural clusters. According to Bozionelos (2009), relationships with peers in the workplace provide similar functions to those of mentoring. Expatriates who have mentors receive confirmation, protection, friendship, and role modelling (Kram, 1985; Tepper, Shaffer, & Tepper, 1996). Peer support may substitute or add to the benefits of a mentor relationship (Bozionelos, 2003; 2008). This will, in turn, improve job satisfaction and turnover intent.

Bozionelos (2009) found a relationship between protégé experience (being involved in a relationship with a mentor) and both job satisfaction and turnover intention. Peer support was only related to job satisfaction. Bozionelos (2009, p.125) concludes that the development of personal ties should be seen as a powerful resource for self-initiated expatriate nurses. The strong association between involvement in a relationship with a mentor and job satisfaction was mostly true for expatriates of non-Arab origins who reported low peer support. Additionally, Bozionelos (2009) found no relationship between cross-cultural training and each of job satisfaction and turnover intention. Finally, Bozionelos (2009) found that cultural origin revealed the strongest relationship with turnover intentions. Expatriates of a cultural cluster similar to that of the host country (that is, Arab), were less likely to report turnover intention.

The second study provides a framework for the repatriation of self-initiated expatriates. Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) sought to explain why and how professional self-initiated expatriates repatriate. They measured host country pull and push, home country pull, shocks and the intention to repatriate of 546 Australians and after one year they measured their home country job search and whether they had repatriated or not. They found that host country pull (weak embeddedness), home country pull and shock explained the intention to repatriate, which led first to job search and then actual repatriation.

Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) surveyed Australian self-initiated expatriates to assess pull and push factors, shocks, and intention to repatriate (time 1) and then a year later (time 2) they measured to what extent they had searched for jobs in their home country and whether they repatriated or not. Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) found that

weak host country pulls, strong home country pulls and shocks are related to high intention to repatriate, which in turn leads to job search in the home country that motivate home country repatriation. Intention to repatriate may lead directly to repatriation. They also found that shocks jar expatriates to search for a job in the home country or directly repatriate.

Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) findings offer three major results. First, being weakly embedded in the host country is related to stronger intent to repatriate, because professionals do not have to break many career and community links, make substantial career or community sacrifices, or relinquish strong career and community fits. Second, shocks are a powerful force that often result in intention to repatriate, which leads to job search and then repatriation. Finally job search is an important mediator that transforms intention to repatriate and shock to actual repatriation.

Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) found that not being embedded in a country may better explains repatriation intentions than dissatisfaction. Their research results suggest other research directions in the area of professional repatriation. First, the lack of influence of satisfaction and the strong role of shock suggest that research should examine different paths that could lead to repatriation in a framework similar to the Unfolding Theory of Turnover (Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001). Host country embeddedness may buffer the influence of shock on repatriation intention (Mitchell et al., 2001); secondly, men and women's repatriation may be influenced by their different career and family roles "hence research is needed into the interaction between career and family factors and gender" (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010, p.1024). Third, in order to fully apply job turnover theory to explain leaving a country it may be useful to examine intention to move out of the host country and job search outside the host country. Thus, there is a need to study turnover that involves leaving the host country. This research examines the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates, it is important to note the difference between turnover intention and repatriation intention. Turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates gives information about the self-initiated expatriate desire to leave his/her current organisation, but does not reveal any information about post-turnover destinations and whether the expatriate wants to repatriate or find another job in the host country.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has considered employee turnover theories, which are theoretically structured within the two main approaches to employee turnover: the job satisfaction approach and the embeddedness approach. The chapter has outlined in detail the job satisfaction theory that forms the foundation of investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention in this study, namely, Price and Mueller's (1981; 1986) and Price's (2001) causal theory of voluntary turnover. The causal theory is comprehensive in terms of the number of antecedents that lead to turnover intention and actual turnover.

Chapter two has discussed the embeddedness approach, which focuses on why employees stay in their jobs, rather than why employees leave, as in the job satisfaction model. The embeddedness model includes the fits and links connecting an individual employee to his/her job and his/her community, and how turnover may result in fracturing valuable career and community links, losing career and community fit and making substantial career and community sacrifices. Embeddedness theory is used in this dissertation to explain why employees stay in their jobs.

Finally the literature on turnover of self-initiated expatriates has been addressed. The next chapter examines the theoretical model proposed in this dissertation based on the literature of employee turnover.

Chapter Three- Proposed Theoretical Model

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Chapter Three: Proposed Theoretical Model

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has thoroughly considered research about voluntary employee turnover theories and voluntary turnover of self-initiated expatriate employees, and highlighted gaps in the literature. This chapter attempts to address those gaps with a discussion of relevant theories, to establish a theoretical background and propose a set of hypotheses that will be tested to seek support for a theoretical model to explain self-initiated expatriates' turnover intention. The opening section of this chapter discusses the rationale for proposing a multivariate model, followed by a section, which addresses the reasons behind studying turnover intention and not actual turnover in this thesis. Then, the theoretical framework is presented, which is based on the three paths that lead expatriate employees to have turnover intention.

The first proposed path is based on the job satisfaction models of voluntary employee turnover, which examine the determinants that “push” self-initiated expatriates to have turnover intent. Chapter Two discussed all the major theories that explain voluntary employee turnover in terms of antecedents that influence job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, which, in turn, result in having turnover intent. This chapter considers in greater detail the job satisfaction model that is used in this research to help explain why self-initiated expatriates have turnover intention. This section uses the *causal model of employee turnover* (Price & Mueller, 1981) to explain why self-initiated expatriates have turnover intent. The antecedents in the model are verified as key determinants of turnover intention in the research context. Finally, the proposed relationships between the antecedents and each of job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, is discussed.

The second proposed path is based on the *embeddedness model* (Mitchell et al., 2001), characterized by factors that “pull” self-initiated expatriates to stay in their jobs. The embeddedness model is based on on-the-job factors and off-the job factors that embed self-initiated expatriates in their careers and communities in the host countries. Chapter Two examined in depth the literature on the embeddedness model of employee turnover. This chapter addresses the embeddedness model in light of its application to the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates including the fit of

expatriates in the career and community of the host country, taking into account the links expatriates form with their jobs and adopted community, in addition to the career and community sacrifices expatriates have to make if they quit.

The third path leading to turnover intention is based on the notion of shock, or a jarring event that happens on or off the job that may initiate thoughts of quitting among self-initiated expatriates. Shock was explained in detail in Chapter Two as part of the *unfolding model of employee turnover* (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). In this chapter, the influence of shock on the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates is examined. Finally, the moderating effect on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness have on the relationship between shock and turnover intention is investigated.

3.2 The Rationale for Conducting a Multivariate Study

The influence of a number of antecedents on turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates is taken into account in this chapter. According to Mobley et al. (1979, p.510); “multivariate studies are necessary in turnover research”. Following March and Simon's (1958) theory of organisation equilibrium, turnover research has resulted in many multivariate turnover models (e.g., Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005; Kraimer et al., 2012, Lee et al., 2004; Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981). Price and Mueller (1981) suggest that none of employee turnover determinants should be discarded as they all had influence on turnover, thereby advocating a multivariate approach.

3.3 The Rationale for Studying Turnover Intention

Although turnover intention is the strongest single predictor of actual turnover, Hom et al. (2012) are critical of how many studies treat turnover intention as the criterion and not as a “distinctive state mediating how other antecedent influence turnover” (p. 832). Hom et al. (2012, p.832) list the difficulties of using turnover intention or “intent (as commonly defined)” as a surrogate criterion:

First, intentions share, at most, 25% of the turnover variance (Griffeth et al., 2000). Second, treating turnover intentions as the criterion ignores the mediators and moderators of the intention-quit relationship (Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005). Third, focusing on quit intentions as the criterion, assumes that employees who have weak

turnover intentions strongly want to stay, which is a premise increasingly disputed (Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009). Hom et al. (2012, p. 832) conclude their argument by advocating that turnover intentions should be treated as “turnover antecedent, not its surrogate and moving it from the criterion space to a new space preceding departure.” In addition they state; “finding new predictors besides quit intentions (and attitudes and alternatives) represent the implicit Holy Grail among present-day investigators”.

Bergman et al. (2012) comment on Hom et al.’s (2012) suggestions of reclassifying turnover intention as antecedent rather than part of the criterion space as follows: To begin with, Bergman et al. (2012) explain that while it is true that some researchers limit their investigation to studying turnover intention (e.g. Hom et al., 2009), they are rarely interested only in predicting turnover intentions, rather they examine turnover intentions for the following reasons (Bergman et al., 2012, p. 867):

- a) It is much easier to collect turnover intention information from self-reports at the same time as collecting predictor information.
- b) Researchers do not want to or are unable to wait six months to two years, as best practice in turnover research recommends (Steel, 2002) for turnover data.
- c) Researchers may be unable to gather identified data, which limits linking predictor data to turnover behaviour data from another source/time

Bergman et al. (2012) criticise researchers who misinterpret research on turnover intention as turnover behaviour and they strongly urge researchers not to over interpret their data on turnover intention. However, mistakes in interpreting data should not necessarily lead to the research itself being discounted (Bergman et al., 2012). Bergman et al. (2012, p.867) propose an interesting argument, advocating the advantages of studying turnover intentions over actual turnover behaviour; “Alternatively, maybe we would be better off predicting turnover intentions rather than turnover behaviours”. According to Griffeth et al. (2000), turnover intention and job search are the best non-economic predictors of actual turnover. Therefore Bergman et al. (2012) argue that organisations have a better chance of changing turnover behaviours if they can intervene before an employee has the intention to quit especially since quit intentions have implications for other workplace behaviours such as motivation, loyalty and performance. Finally, Bergman et al. (2012) observe that Hom et al. (2012) appear to suggest studying turnover intention by advocating the

examination of withdrawal states. Griffeth et al. (2012) respond to Bergman et al. (2012) comments about turnover intention by agreeing that; “the use of intentions is important and we recognize that researchers frequently use intentions as a criterion out of necessity or because it is their variable of interest” (p. 872). However they also add that they do not think it is better to predict intention as opposed to actual turnover, and they emphasise the importance of collecting turnover data.

In this thesis turnover intention will be measured due to its importance in reforming organisational practices to help decrease turnover intention and actual turnover. Furthermore, gathering identification information that can be used to subsequently link it to actual turnover is immensely difficult. Therefore data are collected at one stage only. According to Bergman et al. (2012, p. 867):

The biggest challenges to conduct turnover research are the need to wait adequate amount of time for the data and the requirement that predictor information must contain identification information that can be used to subsequently link it to the criterion data.

The difficulty of collecting identification information is a result of two elements related to the research sample and the context.

The research sample comprises self-initiated expatriates who leave their home countries to find employment opportunities in different countries. Generally, the residency of self-initiated expatriates in the host country is linked to job contracts. The only way to ensure honest responses from a group of diverse self-initiated expatriates is to guarantee the anonymity of the research results, which will be ideally achieved if no identification information is required. Hence, data are collected in this research without any identification information, which, in turn, does not allow collection of actual turnover data. Finally, it is important to note that the dependent variable in this research is turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates, and not repatriation intention. Self-initiated expatriates can change jobs and continue to live in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) as they can easily transfer their residency visa from one employer to the other. Therefore, turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates only indicates the expatriate’s desire to leave their organisation. It does not reveal any

information about post-turnover destinations such as finding another job in the UAE, finding a job at another expatriation destination, or repatriation.

3.4 Implementing Job Satisfaction Models on Self-Initiated Expatriates Turnover

Most of the current research and theories in employee turnover originate from March and Simon's (1958) ideas of the perceived ease of movement, reflected by alternative job opportunities and the perceived desirability of movement, reflected by job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is an integral element in major turnover models (ex: Mobely et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986). Job satisfaction has been examined among self-initiated expatriates because job dissatisfaction and turnover intent are considered to be manifestations of expatriate failure; "...identifying the antecedents of job satisfaction and turnover intent will advance our knowledge of factors that are associated with expatriation success among non-corporate-sponsored expatriates" (Bozionelos, 2009, p.115). According to Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner's (2000) meta analysis proximal precursors in the withdrawal process are the best predictors of employee turnover. These predictors include: job satisfaction ($p = -0.19$) and affective organisational commitment ($p = -0.23$). Yet, there are other distal predictors that also influence turnover, such as autonomy, work group cohesion distributive justice and promotional chances (Griffeth et al., 2000).

In this dissertation Price and Mueller (1981; 1986) and Price (2001) causal model of turnover will form the base of studying the effect of job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment on the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates in the UAE. Holtom et al. (2008) describe this model as a comprehensive structural model that identified the determinants of job satisfaction and turnover intention. According to Holtom et al. (2008) Price's model represents a major shift in focus of employee turnover research by moving the analysis to the causes of job satisfaction. Price's model is a static model, and there have been many calls for using dynamic models to study voluntary turnover (ex: Steel, 2002), however Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005) found after studying a dynamic model, that the static model of turnover research by itself was quite informative even when compared with the dynamic model.

The influence of other antecedents on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment is being examined, namely pay, distributive justice, procedural justice,

promotional opportunity, and autonomy. Additionally, the effect of social support variables on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment is also studied. The social support variables include; co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support, and leader member exchange. Gaertner (1999) used Meta-Analytical Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to investigate the relationship between structural determinants of job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment in the context of turnover models. Gaertner (1999) obtained the data for his study from the empirical studies of Price and Mueller (1981; 1986). His results suggest that; “only few structural determinants (distributive justice, supervisory support, and promotional chances) are directly related to affective organisational commitment over and above job satisfaction.” (Gaertner (1999, p.489), whilst, “most structural determinants are directly related to job satisfaction.” (p.479). Price and Mueller’s (1981; 1986) model is “additive”, and does not include moderators (Gaertner, 1999; Kim et al., 1996). Kim et al. (1996) empirically tested the moderation effects of variables in the causal model. Their findings indicate that none of the interactions are statistically significance (Kim et al., 1996).

3.5 Job Satisfaction Model Antecedents:

The antecedents of the job satisfaction model in this dissertation, are divided to proximal antecedents that have direct effect on turnover intention, namely job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment; and distal antecedents that affect job satisfaction, namely pay, and autonomy. In addition to the distal antecedents that affect both job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, namely promotion opportunity, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker satisfaction, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader member exchange (LMX). (See figure 3.1)

3.5.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the extent to which employees like their job (Price, 2001). Job satisfaction has also been defined as the degree to which employees have positive affective orientations towards employment by the organisation (Price, 1997). Locke (1976, p.1300) defines job satisfaction as; "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences." Studying the effect job satisfaction has on employee turnover goes back to March and Simons’s (1958) ideas

of the perceived desirability of movement (Mitchell et al., 2001). According to Mobley et al. (1979) satisfaction is the most studied psychological variable related to turnover. Dissatisfied employees search for alternatives, compare them with their current job, and leave if any of the alternatives are better than their current work situation (Mobley, 1977).

Attempts to predict turnover from job satisfaction have been based on the general notion of consistency (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). According to Hom et al. (1979), it is commonly assumed to be consistent or logical for a person who has a positive attitude toward some entity or object to perform favourable behaviours, and not to perform unfavourable behaviours toward that entity or object. Quitting is assumed to have implications for the job or the organisation, and it is assumed to mean that the employee who leaves has a negative evaluation of the job. Consequently, job attitudes are expected to predict turnover (Hom et al., 1979).

Many turnover models have examined the effect of job satisfaction on turnover intention and actual turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973; Mobley et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986; Steers & Mowday, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell; 1983; Brooke et al., 1988; Price, 2001; Chen et al., 2011). Job satisfaction has been found to be one of the key determinants of employee turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Allen, Bryant and Vardaman, 2010). There is a consistent negative relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973). Furthermore job satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intentions (Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986; Steers & Mowday, 1981).

Job satisfaction and employee turnover relationship is seldom strong (Hom et al., 1979). Reported correlations between job satisfaction and employee turnover rarely have exceeded .40 (Locke, 1976). Generally, the satisfaction-turnover relations account for 16% of the variable explaining employee turnover (Mobley et al., 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973). However, despite the generally low satisfaction-turnover relations, negative findings or no relation are rarely encountered in the literature (Porter & Steers, 1973). This leads to the first hypothesis of the study:

H1: Job satisfaction is negatively related to self-initiated expatriates' turnover intention

3.5.2 Affective organisational commitment

Affective organisational commitment is defined as loyalty to a social unit (Price, 1997). Porter et al. (1974) characterize affective organisational commitment by three factors: a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; c) a definite desire to maintain organisational membership. Hom et al. (1979) explain the relationship between commitment and turnover as follows; when an employee quits, he/she ends all formal ties with a particular organisation. The employee may not necessarily be abandoning a set of job duties, because the same kind of job may be assumed at another organisation. Therefore, quitting "implies rejection of the organisation but not necessarily rejection of the job. Consequently, affective organisational commitment is regarded as being more directly related to termination than are job attitudes" (Hom et al., 1979, p.282). Porter et al. (1974) argue that affective organisational commitment predicted employee turnover more accurately compared with job satisfaction across several time periods.

Affective organisational commitment has been found to be an important determinant of employee turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et al., 2000; Allen et al., 2010). In a careful review of the turnover literature, Mobley et al. (1979, p.508) conclude; "the developing body of research on commitment" suggests that it is "significantly and negatively related to turnover". Affective organisational commitment is negatively related to employee turnover intention (Steers & Mowday, 1981). Leavers experience lower affective organisational commitment than stayers do prior to termination (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983). According to Price (2001), affective organisational commitment is negatively related to turnover intentions.

Studies of affective organisational commitment in the Arabian Gulf countries have found that mean affective organisational commitment is low (Yousef, 2000a; Al Meer, 1995; Ben-Baker et al., 1994, Bhuian et al., 1996). Such low affective organisational commitment in these countries could be attributed to the fact that expatriates work for high salaries and benefits and are willing to leave their organisations if they are

offered better jobs with higher salaries and benefits (Bhuan et al., 1996). There is evidence to support the relationship between affective organisational commitment and intention to quit in the UAE. Suliman and Al Junaibi (2010) studied the effects of two components of commitment, affective and continuance commitment, on employee turnover intentions in the oil industry in the UAE and found that there was a significant negative relationship between affective organisational commitment and intentions to quit. Suliman and Al Junaibi (2010) observe that there was no difference in intention to quit between national and expatriate employees, and they concluded that nationality plays no role in turnover intentions. Suliman and Al Junaibi (2010) found a significant positive weak relationship between organisational tenure and affective organisational commitment, they also reveal a significant positive relationship between positional tenure and each of affective organisational commitment and two of its components affective and continuance. The second hypothesis of this study:

H2: Affective organisational commitment is negatively related to self-initiated expatriates turnover intention

3.5.3 Pay

Cash income and benefits are the referents of pay (Lawler, 1971). Most people choose to spend the majority of their lives in paid employment (Judge et al., 2010). When individuals are asked why they work, the most commonly cited reason is money (Jurgensen, 1978). Locke and co-authors (1980, p.379) argue, “No other incentive or motivational technique comes even close to money with respect to its instrumental value”. There is a strong support in the literature of the positive correlation between the income of individuals and their well-being and happiness (Diener & Seligman, 2004). In the organisational level, significant positive relationship is found between pay and job satisfaction (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 1999; Malka & Chatman, 2003). Satisfaction with pay is one of the core components of overall job satisfaction (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Heneman and Judge (2000, p.71) observe, “Models of pay satisfaction all suggest that the amount of pay itself should have a direct impact on pay satisfaction”.

According to Kim et al. (1997), economists favourably emphasise pay as a key determinant of employee turnover. The causal model indicates that pay affects turnover intention through its effect on job satisfaction (Kim et al., 1997). Federico et al. (1976) found that higher pay is associated with longer tenure, whereas higher pay and differences between the actual and expected pay, result in shorter tenure. Additionally, Hellriegel & White (1973) argue that employees who quit their jobs reported 20% increase in their pay in the new jobs. They also reveal that employees who quit their jobs have more negative attitudes toward pay than employees who stay in their jobs. Pay is moderately and negatively related to turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth et al., 2000). Pay is a major determinant of selecting a job in the UAE. Expatriates come to the UAE seeking good economic opportunities and high paying jobs (Alnajjar, 1996; Randeree, 2009). Pay is proposed to affect turnover intention because of its influence on job satisfaction. Studies have demonstrated that pay is directly related to job satisfaction, which is directly related to intention to stay (Price, 1977; Price & Mueller, 1981). Receiving good pay increases job satisfaction (Price & Mueller, 1981). This leads to the third hypothesis of this study:

H3: Pay is positively related to the job satisfaction of self-initiated expatriates

3.5.4 Autonomy:

Autonomy refers to; “the amount of freedom employees have to make job-related decisions” (Agho et al., 1993, p.1010). Kim et al. (1997) propose that if employees’ abilities to control their job conditions are so restricted, employees may not plan to stay in the organisation. Greater autonomy is linked to higher job satisfaction because employees have more freedom to determine their own effort and their work schedule (Nguyen et al., 2003). Autonomy is proposed to have a positive impact on job satisfaction (Brooke et al., 1988; Curry et al., 1985). Greater autonomy increases job satisfaction, which increases intent to stay (Price, 2001). This leads to the fourth hypothesis of this study:

H4: Autonomy is positively related to the job satisfaction of self-initiated expatriates

3.5.5 Promotion Opportunity:

Promotion opportunity is; “the amount of potential movement from lower to higher strata within an organisation” (Price & Mueller, 1981, p.545). Mobley et al. (1979) emphasise the importance of future rewards as a determinant of employee turnover. The likelihood of advancement increases employees’ intent to stay in an organisation (Kim et al., 1997). Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) identify promotion opportunity as one of the elements that influence job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Problems with promotion opportunities are a major source of dissatisfaction (Lawler, 1973). Promotion opportunity has statistically significant positive relationship with affective organisational commitment (Curry et al., 1986). Therefore an employee who is dissatisfied with the promotion opportunities is likely to have low satisfaction and commitment, which may lead to turnover intention. Hellriegel and White (1973) found that employees who quit their jobs had more negative attitudes toward promotion than those who stay at their jobs. Research suggests that promotional opportunities influence turnover intention through job satisfaction; promotional opportunities increase job satisfaction, which in turn, results in greater intent to stay (Price & Mueller, 1981). This leads to the fifth hypothesis of this study:

H5: Promotion opportunity is positively related to the job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment of self-initiated expatriates

3.5.6 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is; “the degree to which rewards and punishments are related to the amount of input into the organisation” (Price & Mueller 1981, p.545-546). Distributive justice also refers to “the perceived fairness of the amounts of compensation that employees receive” (Folger & Konovsky, 1989, p.115). Studies have found that distributive justice predicts satisfaction (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) argue that distributive justice is a stronger predictor of personal outcomes such as satisfaction than procedural justice. Distributive justice is found to affect both job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin, 1996). According to Greenberg (1987), perceptions of unfairness in distributive justice lead employees to sense injustice; thus, become less productive, less satisfied and subsequently more willing to quit their jobs. Therefore, employees

who perceive injustice may be less satisfied with their jobs. Consequently, thoughts of quitting provoke, followed by actual turnover (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010).

In the *revised causal model of job satisfaction* Agho et al. (1993), found that distributive justice is one of the main job characteristics that has significant positive effect on job satisfaction. Distributive justice has been shown to be directly related to job satisfaction, which has a direct relationship with intention to stay (Price, 1977; Price and Mueller; 1981). Distributive justice decreases turnover because of its positive impact on job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Gaertner, 1999; Price, 2001). Distributive justice is moderately and negatively related to turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000).

Both national and expatriate employees experience feelings of injustice or inequity. Expatriate employees have feelings of inequity because of the difference in remuneration packages between them and national employees; expatriate salaries and allowances are typically lower than those of UAE nationals (Askari et al., 1998). “Average pay for Emiratis in both sectors is at least three times that of expatriates” (Alserhan et al., 2010, p.46). Additionally, according to Goodwin and Preiss (2010, p.51); “Often, as evidenced in the press, it was not uncommon for expatriate staff to be granted salary increases at a fraction of those given to host country nationals in the same organisation working at similar levels”. This pay inequality may produce feelings of unfairness, which, in turn, affect expatriates’ job satisfaction. UAE nationals also have more promotional opportunities than expatriates (Goodwin & Preiss, 2010). However promotional opportunities among nationals might be influenced by *wasta* (the Arabic word for nepotism) and connections (Goodwin & Preiss, 2010). Al Jenaibi (2011, p.160) found that many employees in UAE public and private organisations believe that there is bias in their companies:

There was a relatively strong agreement that bias existed in their company in favour of employees from “prestigious nations” (The United States, England, and EU) in company promotion. Employees mention this practice as a clear violation of their rights and expressed the belief that it is crucial for each employee to be respected regardless of her or his nationality.

Perceptions of injustice in the research context lead to the sixth hypothesis of this study:

H6: Distributive justice is positively related to the job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment of self-initiated expatriates

3.5.7 Procedural Justice:

Procedural justice is defined as the perceived fairness of the means used to determine the amounts of compensation employees receive (Folger & Konovsky, 1989, p.115). Procedural justice has been found to predict affective organisational commitment (Konovsky et al., 1987). Folger and Konovsky (1989) argue that procedural justice accounts for more variance in affective organisational commitment than distributive justice. According to McFarlin and Sweeney (1992, p.627); “procedural justice may be a more important predictor than distributive justice of outcomes related to evaluating a company as an institution and its representatives such as affective organisational commitment.” The fairness of organisation’s procedures has a greater impact on affective organisational commitment than the fairness of personal outcomes an employee receives (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992). This is because procedures define the organisation’s capacity to treat employees fairly. Therefore, when employees perceive the procedures as fair they will, in turn, view the organisation positively. Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin (1996, p.12), found that procedural justice affect both job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. They argue, “It appears that both distributive and procedural justice seem to be very important in predicting employees' subsequent personal satisfaction and commitment to the organisation.”

Studies have demonstrated that procedural justice is related to job satisfaction and turnover intention (Fields et al., 2000; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). Procedural justice is a significant factor affecting job satisfaction (Alexander and Ruderman, 1987). Nadiri and Tanova (2010) argue that, procedural justice impacts job satisfaction because employees can improve their outcomes by asking for a promotion or a salary increase. The existence of procedural justice within an organisation enables employees to influence the outcomes by participating in decision-making. Thus, “employee’s job satisfaction can be enhanced and influenced by procedural justice” (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010, p.38). Price (2001, p.612) recommend adding procedural justice to the *causal*

model, “the evidence for procedural justice’s positive impact on job satisfaction is such a magnitude as to require its inclusion in future research.” This leads to the seventh hypothesis of this study:

H7: Procedural justice is positively related to the job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment of self-initiated expatriates

3.5.8 Co-worker support

The perceived quality of social support in an organisation is associated with job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 1997). One of the elements of social support is; co-worker or peer support. Relationships with co-workers provide socio-emotional support that includes confirmation, friendship and even role modelling (Kram & Isabella, 1985). Kram and Isabella (1985) argue that co-worker support is essential in different career stages as it offers an opportunity for development and growth. Co-worker support has been found to be one of the determinants of employee turnover (Gaertner, 1999). Koch and Steers (1978) found a significant relationship between satisfaction with co-workers and turnover, however only 4% of the variance was explained. Satisfaction with co-workers is negatively related to turnover (Cotton and Tuttle, 1986). Bozionelos (2009) found peer support to be directly related to job satisfaction of self-initiated expatriate employees. Bozionelos’s (2009) findings show the importance of interpersonal relationships on expatriate turnover intentions, which lead to the eighth hypothesis of this study:

H8: Co-worker support is positively related to the job satisfaction of self-initiated expatriates

3.5.9 Workgroup cohesion

Workgroup cohesion is, “that group property which is inferred from the number and strength of mutual positive attitudes among the members of a group” (Lott, 1961). It is also defined as the extent to which employees have good relationships and close friends in their immediate work unit (Agho et al., 1992). Studies have shown that workgroup cohesion has a positive effect on job satisfaction (Keller, 1983; Martin & Hunt, 1980; Mueller & Price, 1990; Price & Mueller, 1986). It has been also found to positively affect affective organisational commitment (Wech, Mossholder, Steel, &

Bennett, 1998). Additionally, O'Reilly et al., (1989) argue that workgroup homogeneity is related to the degree of social integration, which is negatively related to turnover. Studies have demonstrated that workgroup cohesion is moderately and negatively related to turnover (Allen et al., 2010; Griffeth et al., 2000). Organisations that adopt a supportive and cohesive culture may have improved retention (Allen et al., 2010).

Studying the effect of work group cohesion on turnover intention adds significant value in this dissertation, because workgroup cohesion has been assumed to be negatively associated with dissimilarity (Jackson, 1992). Diversity among expatriates may lead to low group cohesion, which decreases the level of social integration and increases employee turnover (Naumann, 1992). The workforce in the UAE is composed of above 80% expatriates from all over the world. Hence, the cohesiveness of workgroups composed of nationals and expatriates from different countries may have a significant impact on turnover in this context. This leads to the ninth hypothesis of this study:

H9: Work group cohesion is positively related to the job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment of self-initiated expatriates

3.5.10 Managerial support

Managerial support is, “the extent to which supervisors provide encouragement and support to employees within their work group” (Griffin et al., 2001, p.537). The consideration and support of supervisors has been found to be a strong determinant of job satisfaction in a wide variety of work settings (Yukl, 1989). Managerial support has been shown to decrease turnover because of its effect on job satisfaction (Agho et al., 1993; Price, 2001). Studies have demonstrated that managerial support is directly related to job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Gaertner, 1999). Satisfaction with supervision is negatively related to turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). According to Allen et al., (2010, p. 53):

The relationship an individual employee has with his/her immediate supervisor/manager plays a critical role in many turnover decisions; organisations that better prepare supervisors and managers for these relationships may improve retention.

Studies have shown that higher supervisory consideration was associated with lower employee turnover (Fleishman and Harris, 1962; Skinner, 1969). Saleh, et al., (1965) reveal that the second most cited reason for turnover among nurses was lack of consideration by a supervisor; the first reason was job content. Additionally, Hellriegel and White (1973) found a significant negative relationship between satisfaction with supervision and turnover. This leads to the tenth hypothesis of this study:

H10: Managerial support is positively related to the job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment of self-initiated expatriates

3.5.11 Leader-member exchange

Leader member exchange (LMX) is the exchange relationship that employees develop with their immediate supervisors (leaders) (Wayne et al., 1997; Graen & Scandura, 1987). The theoretical basis of LMX is social exchange theory (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Social exchanges require unspecified obligations; when one person does a favour for another, there is an expectation of some kind of future return (Blau, 1964). However exactly when and how the return will occur is often not clear (Gouldner, 1960). The leader-member exchange theory proposes that an interpersonal relationship develops between leaders (supervisors) and employees (subordinates) within a formal organisation (Graen & Cashman, 1975). According to Wayne et al., (1997), the quality of the LMX relationship is directly determined by the perceived value of the tangible and intangible commodities exchange between leaders and employees.

Leader-member exchange has been shown to be moderately and negatively related to turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000). There is a significant negative relationship between LMX quality and intentions to quit (Major et al., 1995; Sparrow, 1994; Wilhelm et al., 1993). Graen et al., (1982) found that the quality of leader member exchange relationships influence voluntary employee turnover predicts. Graen and colleagues (1982) also found that leader member exchange is a stronger predictor of turnover than leadership style. They stated; "... it is the unique exchange that develops between a leader and a member, not a leader's overall style that influences a member's

decision to remain in the organisation” (Graen et al., 1982, p.871). In research conducted by Baptist Health Care Leadership Institute (2007), the most frequently cited reason healthcare employees gave for quitting their jobs was their immediate manager. Therefore anecdotally speaking, leader member exchange will have a strong effect on the turnover of doctors and nurses in the UAE, leading to the hypothesis eleven:

H11: LMX is positively related to the job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment of self-initiated expatriates

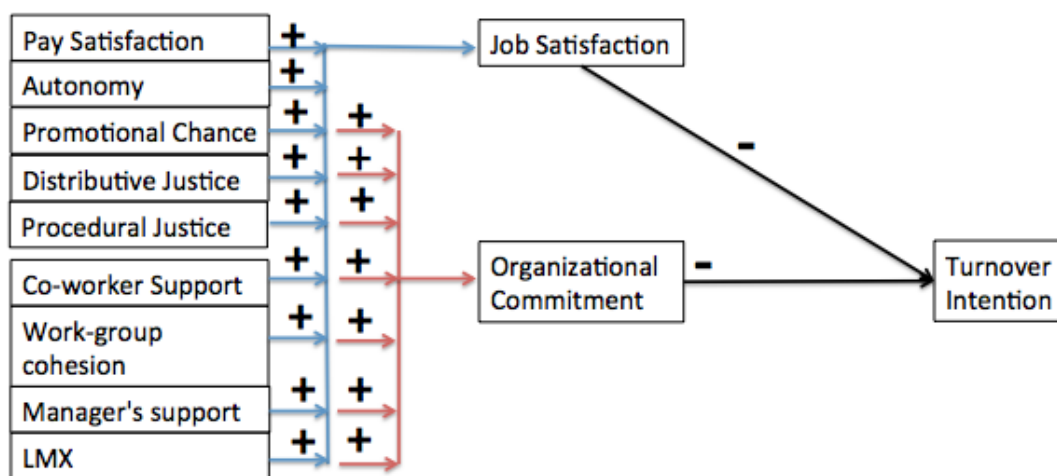


Figure 3.1: Job Satisfaction Model of Self-Initiated Expatriate Turnover Intention

3.6 Implementing Job Embeddedness Theory on Self-Initiated Expatriates' Turnover Intentions:

Job embeddedness theory examines why employees stay in a job by considering on-the-job factors (career embeddedness) and off-the-job factors (community embeddedness). Job embeddedness theory is characterised by three main factors: the fit of employees' values, plans and goals with their jobs and organisation; the links with people, groups and institutions they have gained through their job; and the sacrifices they would have to make if they were to leave their jobs. (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Mitchell et al., 2001).

3.6.1 On-the Job Embeddedness

Job embeddedness is the totality of forces that constrain people from leaving their current employment, rather than the negative attitudes that promote people to quit their job (Mitchell et al., 2001). Job embeddedness is negatively correlated with employees' intent to leave and subsequent voluntary turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001). Job embeddedness is positively related to job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment; it is negatively related to job search and job alternatives (Mitchell et al., 2001).

On-the-Job Links

Links are strands that connect an employee and his/her family in a psychological, social and financial web that include; work and non-work friends, groups, communities and the physical environment (Mitchell et al., 2001). According to Mitchell et al. (2001) the higher the number of links the more an employee is bound to the organisation he/she works in.

Self-initiated expatriates represent the majority of workforce in the UAE. While corporation-sponsored expatriates have the support of their organisations, self-initiated expatriates lack this support within their workplaces. Vance (2005) interviewed corporation-sponsored expatriates and self-initiated expatriates and found that the main disadvantage of self-initiated expatriation compared with expatriation sponsored by the employing organisation is the lack of different forms of support. Therefore self-initiated expatriates might need more interpersonal relationships inside their organisation to compensate for the lack of support they get from the organisation itself.

Interpersonal relationships within the organisation are important determinants of expatriate employees' turnover. Bozionelos's (2009) study of the turnover of expatriate nurses in Saudi Arabia found that; "the development of interpersonal ties that is relationships with mentors, primarily, and peers, secondarily should be seen as a powerful resource for expatriate nurses, by expatriation for non-corporate-sponsored expatriates in general" Bozionelos (2009, p.125). Having more interpersonal relationships in the organisation increases the employee's links to the organisation,

which in turn decreases turnover intention. Because “leaving their job... can sever or require the rearrangement of some of these links.” (Mitchell et al., 2001, p.1116)

On the job Fit

Fit is defined as, “an employee’s perceived compatibility or comfort with an organisation and with his or her environment” (Mitchell et al., 2001, p.1116). According to Mitchell et al. (2001), an employee’s career goals and plans must fit with the larger corporate culture, and the knowledge, skills and abilities gained from the job. Self-initiated expatriates become embedded in the host country because of employment opportunities, professional development and income (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Inversely, lack of job compatibility was found to predict turnover (Villanova et al., 1994). Therefore, “The better the fit, the higher the likelihood that an employee will feel professionally and personally tied to the organisation” (Mitchell et al., 2001, p.1116).

On-the-Job Sacrifice

Sacrifice is, “the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be lost by leaving one’s job” (Mitchell et al., 2001, p.1117). Quitting a job results in personal losses, such as leaving interesting projects or giving up colleagues (Mitchell et al., 2001). According to Shaw et al. (1998), the more an employee gives up when quitting, the more difficult quitting becomes. Individuals can find comparable salary and benefits in new jobs; however, non-portable benefits are negatively related to turnover (Gupta & Jenkins, 1980).

H12: On-the job embeddedness is negatively related to self-initiated expatriates’ turnover intentions.

3.6.2 Off-the Job Embeddedness

Expatriate embeddedness encompasses the; "individual's fit, links, and sacrifices related to their expatriate jobs while on assignment and to their host country communities" (Kraimer et al., 2012, p.402). Off-the-job embeddedness is more crucial when location is involved (Holtom & O’Neil, 2004). Off-the-job embeddedness is important for the expatriate employee, as he/she has to live temporarily in a foreign country to meet job requirements (Shaffer, Harrison & Gilley, 1999). Kraimer et al.

(2012) argue that on and off-the-job embeddedness encourage the development of the identity of international employees. Embeddedness in the host country community is positively related to satisfaction with the host country (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Thus; "expatriates who become highly embedded in their jobs and communities, by definition, feel that they fit these host country jobs and communities, and they develop social ties, or links, with host country people both at work and in the community" (Kraimer et al., 2012, p.402).

According to Mitchell et al. (2001, p.1117): "Embeddedness may have even stronger effects for people in professions in which changing jobs usually involves changing locations." When an expatriate employee leaves his/her job in most cases he/she will have to leave the country, as residency permits in the UAE are granted by restricted work visas, which depend on job contracts. Consequently, expatriate employees will have to consider sacrificing the community they live in when leaving their jobs in the UAE. Community sacrifices are mostly an issue when someone has to relocate (Mitchell, et al., 2001). The sacrifices when leaving the UAE could include: losing an opportunity to work in a country that does not impose income tax; leaving a safe and tolerant community that accepts different cultures and religions; and leaving a place with many options for international schools. Additionally, expatriates are likely to be more firmly embedded in a community if they have children or a partner, as both will enhance links with friends and the community and assist in creating a satisfying social life that is difficult to leave (Mak, 1997). Expatriates are more likely to repatriate when they are childless, or when their children are not settled in the host country (Mak, 1997). In sum, the more an employee has to give up when leaving, the more difficult it is to quit (Shaw et al., 1998). According to Tharenou and Caulfield (2010, p.1013); "when expatriates are strongly embedded in their community, it is more likely that their social needs are being met and that they are more satisfied with living in the host country and less inclined to return."

H13: Off-the job embeddedness is negatively related to self-initiated expatriates' turnover intentions

3.7 Implementing the concept of shock on the turnover intentions of Self-Initiated Expatriates:

3.7.1 Shock

“A shock is a particular, jarring event that initiates the psychological analysis involved in quitting a job.” (Lee et al. 1999, p. 451). Shock is related to turnover, it starts a quitting script or initiating re-evaluation of current job (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). According to Holtom et al. (2005), in more than 60% of voluntary turnovers that were examined across multiple industries, the immediate antecedent to leaving was a shock, rather than accumulated job dissatisfaction. A shock may jolt an expatriate into evaluating whether life in the host country is meeting his/her values, plans and goals. If not, then he/she may become dissatisfied and develop the intention to leave (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Dissatisfaction and turnover intention may arise from different types of shocks according to Tharenou and Caulfield (2010); including both positive shocks, like a wedding in the home country that force the expatriate to evaluate life abroad and think about leaving; and negative shocks for example issues with elderly parents that trigger thoughts of quitting.

According to Lee and Mitchell (1994) there are three categories for shocks: personal events that are external to the job; personal events that are job or work-related, and organisational events. Examples of personal events that are external to the job are getting married and having children. Many women leave their jobs after getting married or having a child: “many UAE women cease working after marriage and bearing children, either due to the insufficient number and quality of childcare centres and/or because maternal care is considered to be more beneficial for their children” (Shallal, 2010, p.116). Additionally, a pregnancy of an expatriate or his/her partner may trigger repatriation because of a previously determined plan to bring up children in the home country or the desire to raise a child close to family (Inkson et al., 2004). Another type of shock may be illness of a family member, which may cause the expatriate employee to quit his/her job, and leave the UAE to return to his/her home country to take care of their ill family member. One of the main disadvantages of working in the UAE for Western expatriate workers is the geographical distance from their home countries. In a study of the role of family considerations for expatriate employees in the UAE, Schoepp and Forstenlechner (2010, p.317) found that, “the

distance from family is the one family-related variable which is more of a motivation to leave than to remain.” This is more so in the case of family member illness in the home country. A shock may lead an employee to quit immediately, or it may cause an employee to conduct a job search (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Mitchell et al., 2001)

H14: Shock is positively related to self-initiated expatriates’ turnover intentions.

3.7.2 Integrating the unfolding model and job embeddedness model to better understand self-initiated expatriate turnover

Holtom and Inderrieden (2006) attempt to connect the unfolding model with the job embeddedness model to better understand employee turnover. The unfolding model and the embeddedness model connect through “shocks” (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). Mitchell and Lee (2001) propose a connection between job embeddedness and shocks; they state that low levels of job embeddedness might make employees more susceptible to shocks; “thus, understanding how embeddedness might deflect shocks and diminish job search may increase understanding turnover” (p.1118). When employees fit well with the organisation, it will take a stronger shock to cause them to consider quitting (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). For instance, when employees do not experience a strong sense of fit, they might be more sensitive to internal events like appraisals or pay rise announcements; they concentrate on such events and place high importance on them to interpret their place in the organisation; likewise low fit may also cause employees to be sensitive to external events and their interpretation (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). When an employee who has many strong links to the organisation and community experiences a shock, the shock interpretation will be affected by the links or by other people with similar interests and values (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). Tharenou and Caulfield’s (2010) research on the repatriation of self-initiated expatriates indicates that the lack of influence of satisfaction and the strong role of shock suggest that research should examine different paths that may lead to repatriation in a framework similar to the unfolding theory of turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001). Host country embeddedness may buffer the influence of shock on repatriation intention (Mitchell et al., 2001). This might apply to self-initiated expatriates in the UAE. When an expatriate employee faces a shock they are less likely to have the intention to quit if they have strong community embeddedness.

Therefore we propose that community embeddedness moderates the relationship between shock and turnover intention for self-initiated expatriates. (See figure 3.2)

H15: Off-the-Job embeddedness moderates the relationship between shock and the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates such that the relationship is weaker when off-the-job embeddedness is high

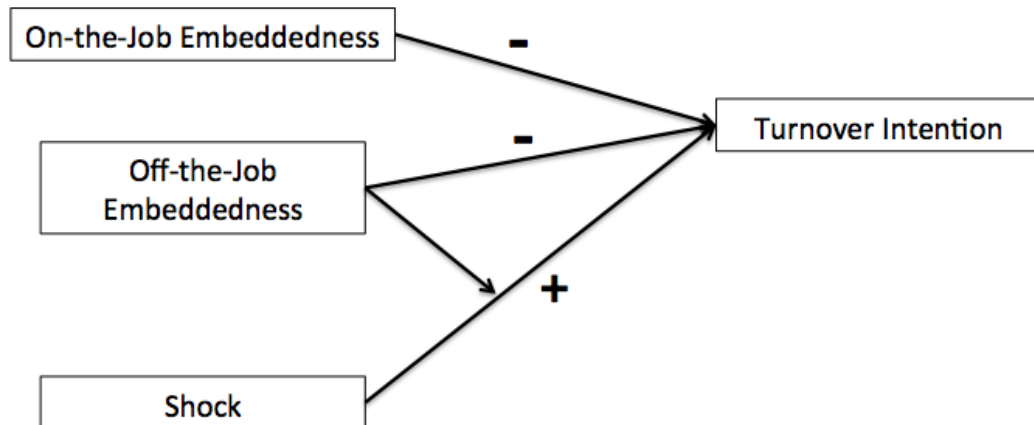


Figure 3.2: Embeddedness Model of Self-Initiated Expatriate Turnover Intention

3.8 Additional Antecedents

Developing a comprehensive model that explains the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates requires adding antecedents that may influence turnover intention directly. These antecedents, namely, job security and kinship responsibility, have direct implications on expatriates' turnover intention.

3.8.1 Job security

Employment security is directly related to organisation commitment, which, in turn, is directly related to employee turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). UAE nationals have substantial job security by law (Shaw et al., 2003). On the other hand expatriates are permanent residents in the UAE, their residency depends on a three-year restrictive work visa, and if the employer does not renew the work contract, or once the employment contract of an expatriate employee ends either by voluntary quitting or discharge, the expatriate employee will be deported from the country unless the expatriate finds another job in the UAE (Shaw et al., 2003). This creates a transient working environment with high turnover numbers and low affective organisational

commitment, because there is a lack in organisational cultures that aims to support the training and career development of long-term employees (Al Ali, 2008). Moreover, Emiritisation makes expatriate employees feel insecure about keeping their jobs, because they fear that they may be replaced with nationals (Alserhan et al., 2009). UAE nationals have greater job security compared with expatriates; national employees enjoy long-term security of employment, while expatriate employees have limited term contracts that get renewed every three to five years (Goodwin & Preiss, 2010). Furthermore; “expatriates are easily fired, get little compensation if they are fired and if they complain and the case goes to court, it would take the court an average of one year to give them a minimum of their rights” (Alserhan et al., 2010, p.46).

H16: Job security is negatively related to self-initiated expatriates’ turnover intentions.

3.8.2 Kinship responsibility:

Kinship responsibility means; “the degree of an individual’s obligations to relatives in the community in which an employer is located” (Price & Mueller, 1981, p.546). Kinship responsibility increases intent to stay (Price & Mueller, 1981). The family situation is the most important determinant of expatriate turnover (Harvey, 1985). According to Naumann (1991), expatriates’ satisfaction, commitment and involvement are moderated by the expatriate’s family situation and the overall family satisfaction with the international experience and the characteristics of the country in which the international assignment is located. Tung (1982) found that two of the three most frequently cited causes for expatriate turnover are family related namely, the inability of the expatriate family/spouse to adjust to a new and different cultural environment and other family reasons. If the expatriate’s spouse or family are having difficulty in making the cross-cultural adjustment or undergoing a culture shock, then the performance, moral and work attitudes of the expatriate employee are affected (Harvey, 1985; Mendenhall, Dunbar & Oddou, 1987, Tung, 1982). The spouse might experience high levels of stress because of disruption of the children’s education, loss of identity and self-worth, missing friends and relatives, and cultural isolation in the new country (Harvey, 1985). Children might also affect the expatriate employee, as they may resist moving and/or face problems related to their education, social

relations, linguistic differences, and cultural values (Naumann, 1992). Therefore the greater the number of children an expatriate has, the more likely adjustment problems will occur. Although the effect of family related issues on expatriate turnover is of major importance, there is little empirical investigation of these effects. Naumann (1992, p.517) states, “Despite the apparent importance of these variables, there is apparently little empirical investigation of the impact of family situation on expatriate turnover”.

H17: Kinship responsibility is negatively related to self-initiated expatriates turnover intention

3.9 Graph of The Proposed Theoretical Model

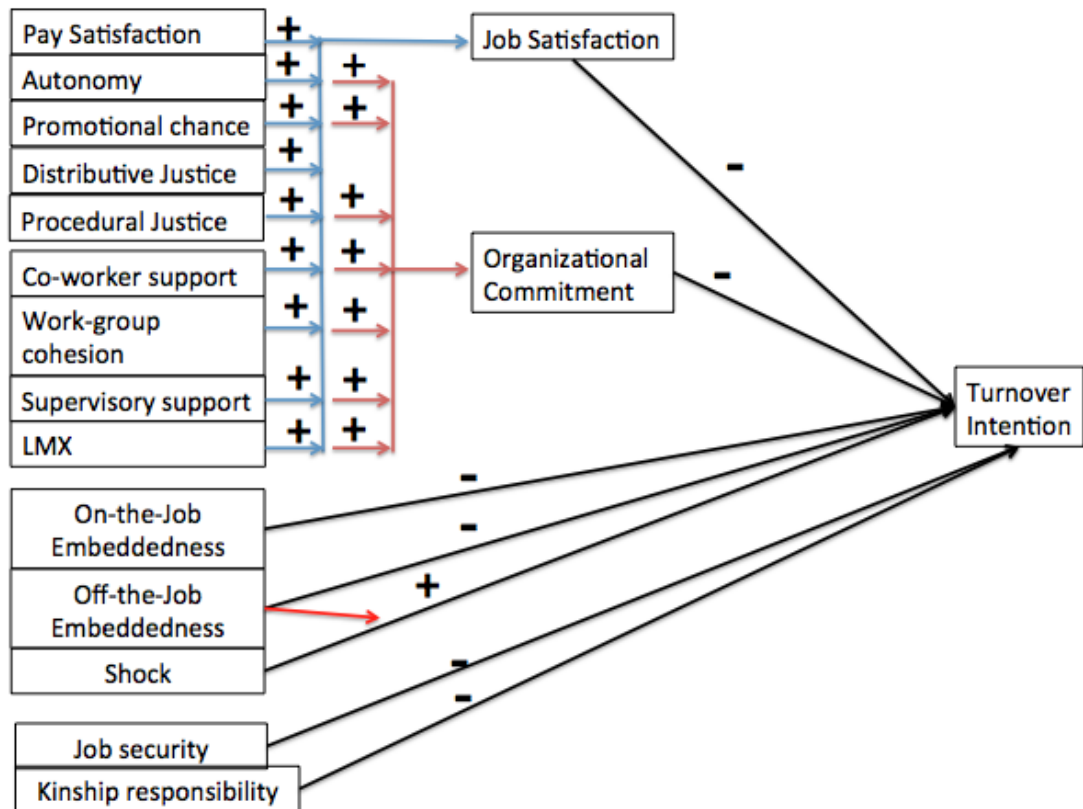


Figure 3.3: Self-Initiated Expatriate Turnover Intention Model

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter discusses the proposed theoretical model of self-initiated expatriate turnover intention. The proposed model includes a number of hypotheses that explain

turnover intention through different paths. The first path incorporates job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, which are proposed to directly influence turnover intention among self-initiated expatriates. It also includes a number of distal antecedents: pay, distributive justice, promotional chances and autonomy, in addition to social support antecedents: co-worker support, work group cohesion, supervisory support and LMX. The second path addresses the effects of on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness on self-initiated expatriates turnover intentions. Finally, the third path discusses the influence of shock on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. It also introduces the idea of connecting the embeddedness model with the unfolding model, to better understand turnover intention. This connection is examined through the moderating effect of embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intention. The next chapter examines literature about the UAE to provide a detailed context for the study.

Chapter Four- Context Literature Review

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Overview of the UAE
 - 4.2.1 Historical view of the UAE
 - 4.2.2 UAE economy
 - 4.2.3 UAE population
 - 4.2.4 Social development of the UAE
 - 4.2.5 UAE Culture
 - 4.2.6 Healthcare in the UAE
 - 4.2.7 Diversity in the UAE
- 4.3 The UAE Workforce
 - 4.3.1 National workforce
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- 4.4 Special trends in the UAE business environment
 - 4.4.1 UAE nationalization-Emiritisation
 - 4.4.2 Defining Emiritisation
 - 4.4.3 Challenges of Emiritisation
 - 4.4.4 Problems caused by Emiritisation
- 4.5 Expatriate family concerns
- 4.6 Conclusion

Chapter Four: Context Literature Review

4.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of the setting for this research, namely, the United Arab Emirates. It covers topics such as the history, economy, population, workforce, and critical business trends in the United Arab Emirates. Understanding the dynamics that shape the research context is necessary for the formation of a theoretical model that examines expatriate employee turnover intentions in this context.

4.2 Overview of the UAE

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) has a strategic location, connecting the West and the East, and they have a liberal competitive business environment (Grant et al., 2007). Investors and experts from all over the world come to work in the UAE because of its growing economy and stable political environment (Grant et al., 2007). The UAE is located at the southern tip of the Arabian Gulf, with a total area of 83,600 km² (Randeree, 2009). The Emirate of Abu Dhabi covers the largest share (87%) of the total area of the UAE (Gonzales, 2008). The UAE has a long coastline on the Arabian Gulf (also known as the Persian Gulf); Saudi Arabia borders the UAE from the south and west, and the Sultanate of Oman borders the UAE from the north and east. The UAE has a tropical desert climate with very little to no rainfall (Randeree, 2009).

The UAE was constituted on 2nd December 1971 to form a federation of seven Emirates or states. Abu Dhabi is the capital; the other Emirates are: Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Fujairah, Umm Al Quwain, and Ras Al Khaimah. Thus the UAE is governed by a federal system (Randeree, 2009). This federation gives each of the seven Emirates considerable degree of autonomy over its economic, political and financial affairs (Randeree, 2009). Each Emirate has its own economic policy depending on its resources, for example Abu Dhabi's government is heavily invested in developing its extensive energy resources as it has 90% of the UAE's oil reserves (Randeree, 2009). On the other hand, Dubai's government is focused on trade and tourism. Dubai re-exports more than US \$10 billion per year and, with its free trade zone, it has become a business hub for the entire region (Randeree, 2009). In addition to being the capital

of the UAE and the governing Emirate, Abu Dhabi is a major contributor to the Trucial States Development fund, to support infrastructure development in those Emirates with low or no oil reserves (UAE Ministry of Information and Culture, 2006). According to Randeree (2009) the UAE differs from other Gulf Cooperative Council (GCC) countries due to its liberal and developed nature. The UAE is viewed by the international community as a model for a new and sustainable Middle East in the 21st century. The boom of oil production over the last three decades has led to large developments in infrastructure that have caused a massive influx of expatriate workers, due to a shortage both in number and skills of national workers (Gonzalez et al., 2008). Although this was a necessity for the development of the country, it has resulted in demographic challenges (Gonzalez et al., 2008), as non-nationals now make up 80% of the UAE population (Randeree, 2009).

The UAE faces many demographic challenges (Maloney, 1998), such as issues related to the employment of its national workforce (Ruppert, 1998). Other challenges include increase of population diversity, educational concerns and gender related problems (Randeree, 2009). Moreover there is a population boom in the UAE, particularly among its youth. Recent statistics estimate that 38% of UAE nationals are less than 15 years of age (Gonzalez et al., 2008). Randeree (2009, p.71) observes that; “the challenges for the rulers of the UAE is to engage the national human resource in education and employment, moving in step with advanced nations whilst respecting Arab and Islamic traditions”. According to Randeree (2009) *Emiratisation*, along with encouraging the active participation of national women in public and private workforces, may help in alleviating many of the problems facing the UAE. Emiratisation is a nationalisation process consisting of a policy aimed at reducing the demand for expatriate workers (Randeree, 2009).

4.2.1 Historical view of the UAE

A historical analysis of the Arabian Gulf area shows distinctive stages of workforce evolution that have led to the developed economies witnessed today (Abdalla, 1996). To begin with, during the period from the pre-Islamic era up until the 1900s, the population was composed of tribes who moved around searching for water wells and grazing lands and the predominant commercial activities were tribal disputes and herding camels (Hourani, 1991). Commercial activities started to develop in the era

from 1500 to 1940, due to the expansion of trade with Asia and Europe, in addition to fishing, pearl diving and seafaring (Randeree, 2009). From 1940s onwards the Arabian Gulf societies started became affluent as a result of the discovery of oil (Randeree, 2009).

The rapid advance of the GCC countries, financed by oil revenues, led to infrastructure development and robust economic growth (Randeree, 2009). Such development created a need for expatriate workers because of a shortage of supply of national workers (Randeree, 2009). This has resulted in the fact that a number of the GCC countries are dependent on a more qualified and cheaper expatriate workforce than their own nationals (Randeree, 2009). More recently GCC governments, have begun to realise that they should depend on their own national workforce to achieve continuous future development (Randeree, 2009).

4.2.2 UAE economy

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is an oil-rich nation; oil resources make up 80% of the nation's revenue (Grant et al., 2007). According to OPEC (2005), the UAE oil reserves are estimated at 98 billion barrels, or around 100 years at current production levels (Gonzalez et al., 2008). Although the UAE economy is largely dependent on the production and export of oil and gas (Elamin, 2011), the UAE government is trying to rely on other revenue sources and diversify the economy by focusing on other sectors, such as tourism, real estate, construction and finance (Bhattacharya, 2006). UAE's GDP (Gross domestic product) has increased dramatically over the last three decades.

One of the main steps taken by the UAE government towards creating a competitive global business environment came in 1995, when the UAE entered the WTO (World Trade Organisation) (Grant et al., 2007). Another important step taken by the UAE government to diversify the economy was establishing free trade zones (Moore, 2004). As a result of the discovery of oil reserves, the UAE has experienced a sharp increase in the standard of living over the last three decades (Elamin, 2011). "According to the Statistics Centre of Abu Dhabi, the annual average household income in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi in 2007 was about \$60 thousand, with national

household income being about \$125 thousand on average, compared to about \$47 thousand for non-national households” (Shallal, 2010, p.125).

4.2.3 UAE population

The economic growth that resulted from oil production has led to a dramatic increase in population because of the need for expatriate workers for the infrastructure development projects. Gonzalez et al. (2008) state that the UAE population has grown from 500,000 in 1973 to 4.6 million in 2006, according to World Bank reports. The UAE has one of the largest population growth rates in the region, estimated at 7% per annum (Gonzalez et al., 2008). Although most of the population growth can be explained by the influx of expatriate workers, the national population has also grown from approximately 200,000 in 1974 to approximately 900,000 in 2004 (Gonzalez et al., 2008). According to the 2005 UAE census, 79 per cent of the total UAE population is between ages 15 and 64, and 20 per cent are under age 15. However, 38 per cent of the national population is under the age of 15. These numbers suggest an expected boom in the national UAE population in the coming years. The government’s concern is when this large group of UAE nationals under the age of 15 reach employment age, the market may not be able to take them in, which will increase unemployment rates among nationals (Al-Shamsi, 2005; Gonzalez et al., 2008). Around 3 per cent of UAE nationals are above 65, whilst 1 per cent of the total population is above 65. This is because most expatriate workers are unable to get their employment contracts renewed near or reaching retirement age, and the majority of them go back to their home countries (Gonzalez et al., 2008). The UAE has the highest proportion of expatriate workers among the Arabian Gulf countries (Gonzalez et al., 2008).

Table 4.1 shows the demographic breakdown of the UAE based on 2007 census data published in Al Bayan newspaper according to nationality.

Nationality	Population	Percentage
Total	6,493,929	100.0
Emirati	875,617	13.5
Arab Expat	823,633	12.7

Indian	2,367,732	36.5
Pakistani	822,914	12.7
Bangladesh	589,545	9.1
Filipino	279,602	4.3
Sri Lanka	104,623	1.6
Iran	100,309	1.5
Nepal	93,469	1.4
China	32,637	0.5
Other Asian	151,234	2.3
Europe and Australia	134,630	2.1
North American	41,354	0.6
South American	4,177	0.1

Table 4.1: Demographic composition of the UAE (based on Randeree, 2009, p.73 (Al Bayan newspaper, 2007))

4.2.4 Social Development of the UAE

The main drive of social change and rapid development in the UAE has been the discovery of massive oil reserves in 1958 (Whiteoak et al., 2006). Before the economic boom of oil wealth in the 1960s, UAE nationals lived in extended family groups based on tribal affiliations (Sarayrah, 2004). According to Sayed (2004, p. 52) “traditionally in the gulf region, families banded together in order to survive the desert environment. Once resources were gathered, they were guarded from outsiders by the tribe. Tribes thus evolved as exclusive groups who restricted membership so that the group’s solidarity was not diluted.” After the discovery of the oil, UAE nationals started settling into urban areas, and families began to live together in the same “freej” (freej: family-dominated neighbourhoods) (Bristol-Rhys, 2010, p.12). As the standards of living started to increase in the UAE, the level of UAE nationals’ wealth also rose, and they slowly began to live further apart from other members of the family, clan and tribe. The populated areas grew in size and merged with many people together; different tribes started living in the same neighbourhoods, and even expatriates (especially those with medium to high economic standards) began to live side by side with nationals from different tribes and families in the same

neighbourhoods. According to Rashad et al. (2005), family is the centre point or core for all family members in the Arabic region; family is expected to be the main social security system for all different groups and members; it is also expected to provide economic help when needed and economic protection for the children. Even today, considerable numbers of UAE nationals live with their extended families, which decrease their financial responsibilities, as they do not have to worry about paying rent, or a mortgage. Instead they pay part of the expenses of an extended family. In a study of UAE society Whiteoak et al. (2006) observe that societies are not either or, rather there is a continuous tension between tradition and modernity, which is typical of the UAE. Moreover Whiteoak et al (2006, p.90) note that; “attitudes held by people in the Middle East are changing on the one hand (e.g. individualism) but are also deeply held on the other hand (e.g. the Islamic work ethic).”

4.2.5 UAE Culture

The UAE is strongly embedded in Islam (the official religion of the country) and in the Islamic traditions and culture. According to Grant et al. (2007, p.527); “The social behaviour and business are still, to a large extent, influenced by the religion practices and cultural norms”. Hofstede (1984) categorises the UAE as having low individualism and high collectivism, large power distance, strong uncertainty avoidance and average masculinity. The UAE culture is similar to that in other Arab nations such as Lebanon, Egypt, Libya and Iraq, and other Arab Gulf nations such as Kuwait, and Saudi Arabia, in terms of collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity. It is also similar to the cultures of Argentina, Brazil, India, Iran, Turkey, Greece and Jamaica in terms of collectivism and power distance (Hofstede, 1984).

The UAE has taken steps towards modernisation and transformation, with large urban areas in each emirate (Grant et al., 2007). Grant et al. (2007, p.528) explain the characteristics of the UAE culture as follows:

The social and business culture in the UAE is highly collectivistic and high in power distance (where power distribution is expected and accepted by leaders and followers to be unequally distributed) this means that business negotiations and dealings are typically made with family relationships, social contacts, and social status in mind.

According to Whiteoak et al. (2006, p.86); “there is a great deal of pressure in Arab societies to conform to social norms and beliefs.” Westernisation and modernisation have an important effect on the values of UAE nationals (Whiteoak et al., 2006). Whiteoak et al. (2006) found that younger UAE nationals have higher levels of individualism than older UAE nationals. Such high levels of individualism may be due to the economic growth of the country. Individualism is associated with economic prosperity and success of a country (Hofstede, 2000).

4.2.6 HealthCare in the UAE

Healthcare standards are considered to be generally high in the UAE, due to governmental expenditure, especially during the years of strong economic growth (Library of Congress, 2007). According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), the total expenditure on healthcare in 2004 represented 2.9 per cent of the UAE’s GDP, while the expenditure on healthcare per capita was \$497 (Library of Congress, 2007). Healthcare in the UAE has witnessed huge development over the last three decades, with the number of public hospitals increasing from seven in 1971 to 40 in 2007 (Library of Congress, 2007). Such a great pace of development in the healthcare industry in the UAE has resulted in filling healthcare positions with expatriate workers, as growth outpaced the nation’s ability to provide the needed manpower (Underwood, 2009). According to Dr Ali Al Numairy, the president of the Emirates Medical Association “The expansion of the healthcare sector in the Emirates was faster than the influx of Emirati health professionals. Many of the jobs were initially taken by expatriates” (Underwood, 2009). Exact figures of healthcare workforce composition in the UAE are hard to establish due to a lack of centralised records (Underwood, 2009). It is estimated that UAE nationals represent a minority (10 or 20 per cent) of healthcare workers (Underwood, 2009). The *World Economic Forum’s Arab World Competitiveness Report 2007* undertaken by McKinsey and Company stated that 82 per cent of physicians and 96 per cent of nurses in the UAE were expatriate, these figures are the highest of all GCC countries (Underwood, 2009).

There is a need to increase the number of UAE nationals in healthcare, as explained by Dr Ali Al Numairy; “there are areas, such as preventive medicine, where UAE nationals would be a help; they understand the culture and problems” (Underwood,

2009). While the majority of healthcare workers in the UAE come from the Philippines, India and Arabic countries like Egypt, Jordan and Iraq, some of the largest hospitals and clinics in the UAE are run by international health management companies (Underwood, 2009). In the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, the company responsible for operating public hospitals, SEHA, has contracts with firms including the US-based Johns Hopkins Medicine and Cleveland Clinic and the Thailand-based Bumrungrad International. (SEHA, Underwood, 2009). There is a lack of centralised records, therefore identifying the exact turnover rate of healthcare workers is difficult, however the UAE Global AIDS Response Progress Report (2012, p.20) states that there is high staff turnover in healthcare organisations in the UAE, especially among expatriate health workers.

4.2.7 Diversity in the UAE

Workforce diversity is a positive element in organisations (Von Bergen et al., 2005). Companies seek diversity in order to increase their competency and as a way of gaining competitive advantage (Richard et al., 2006; Ferlie et al., 2003), improving business performance, building the ability to compete globally, enhancing relationships with multicultural communities, achieving higher employee satisfaction, attracting different talents and skills and sustaining a workforce that mirrors the customer base (McCuiston et al., 2004). Furthermore, a culturally diverse workforce leads to better performance (Barney & Wright, 1998; Johnson, 1999; Cox & Black, 1991) and higher economic benefits (Ferlie et al., 2003). According to White (1999) creativity thrives on diversity. A company with a diverse workforce has more opportunities of creating an innovative environment at work (Adler, 1997). The benefits of diversity can be gained only with adequate implementation of diversity promoting policies (Jamrog, 2002). Many organisations are increasingly embracing an ethnically, racially, and gender-diverse workforce in order to take a progressive perspective on the organisational economic interest (Coil & Rice, 1993). On the other hand, some scholars are supportive of uniformity because of the negative effects of racial and gender diversity on individual and group outcomes (Milliken & Martins, 1996). According to Milliken and Martins (1996), employees who belong to groups that differ from the majority tend to have less affective organisational commitment, more absenteeism and more turnover intent.

Alserhan et al. (2010, p.44) state that, “The UAE are a prime example of cultural diversity both at the country level and at the level of most public and private organisations.” The UAE has one of the largest migration rates in the world (Burns, 2005). Workers come to the UAE from all over the world (India, Pakistan, Arab countries, USA, Europe, Australia, Indonesia, the Philippines, and other countries) and the rate of influx of migrant workers has increased dramatically in recent decades (Burns, 2005). The diversity and multiculturalism observed in the UAE creates a greater pool of experienced and talented individuals, which, in turn, enhances creativity and innovation within the society (Randeree, 2009). According to Alserhan et al. (2010), globalisation and economic changes in the UAE have created unprecedented levels of heterogeneity, which is manifested in a number of ways: “More people are speaking languages other than Arabic at home, non-Muslim places of worship are being increasingly built around the UAE and women are becoming more educated and more financially independent” (Alserhan et al., 2010, p. 44). The heterogeneous trend is evident by the number of UAE nationals in the workforce. According to Alserhan et al. (2010), UAE nationals only represent a small percentage of the workforce in the UAE. Due to the large number of expatriates, UAE workplaces are, “unparalleled in terms of nationality, language, religion, and work attitudes diversity” (Alserhan et al., 2010, p.44).

The skilful management of workplace diversity has become a priority in the UAE (Al Jenaibi, 2011). In order for organisations to gain the most benefit from an increasingly multicultural workforce, equal opportunities should be supported. Initiatives supporting diversity ensure that organisations do not lose talent (Al Jenaibi, 2011). Organisations in the UAE are under increased pressure to hire and manage employees from different cultural and racial backgrounds (Walck, 1995). “This results in an increasing need for managers in UAE organisations to understand and implement best communication and diversity strategies when working with a highly diverse workforce due to the on-going development in the UAE, the rate of hiring foreign workers has actually increased” (Al Jenaibi, 2011, p.148). However organisational policies in the UAE do not match the increased diversity. Al Jenaibi, (2011, p.148) observes; “Like many organisations, companies in the UAE have, at best, inconsistent policies and methods regarding diversity and intercultural communication”. Managers in the UAE face challenges due to the diversity of the workforce and often have to

deal with a majority of expatriate workers. Managers adopt different decision styles depending on their cultural background and the cultural conditioning of their subordinates (Hofstede, 1980). Expatriates' national culture influences how they perceive and react to the host country (Adler, 1990).

4.3 Workforce in the UAE

The rapid economic expansion of the last three decades has created a severe shortage of labour in the UAE, which could only be filled by a large influx of expatriate workers (Elamin, 2011). According to Randeree (2009, p.72) “only 12 per cent of the employees in the UAE are Emirati nationals”. Moreover Randeree (2009) predicts that the demographic imbalance between nationals and expats is likely to continue to expand in the near future, as long as the UAE keeps on developing and expanding its infrastructure. Randeree (2009) explains that expatriate workers continue to flow into the country at a notably high rate because the UAE has attractive job opportunities, good healthcare and education, higher incomes and better standards of living. The advantage of this flow of expatriate workers is an increase in diversity and an increase in the number of talented and experienced people, which serves to enhance creativity and innovation within the society. Randeree (2009, p.72) notes; “As the knowledge based economy experiences continued growth, the nation has recognized that long term development should be placed in the hands of a growing national workforce”. However in reality, nationalisation programmes across the GCC are problematic, particularly in the UAE, because they are primarily there to set quotas for increasing the number of nationals working in the private sector and decreasing the number of expatriates (Randeree, 2009). Randeree (2009) observes that in order for a prospective knowledge based economy to succeed in the UAE; the country should utilise their entire human resource capital and encourage the participation of women in the workforce. According to Randeree (2009, p. 73) “a proportionally high workforce coupled with a reliance on expatriate employees implies that issues of working conditions, continuity, transience of the workforce and stability are raised”

4.3.1 National workforce

UAE citizens typically choose high paid, administrative, public sector positions (Elamin, 2011). They are, in general guaranteed employment they have health insurance covered by the government, and they have access to free public education,

in addition to educational scholarships (Elamin, 2011). Elamin (2011, p.21) also notes that UAE nationals have “various financial privileges and favouritism.” According to Alnajjar (1996), national regulations in the UAE require that foreign investors to partner with a UAE national in order to be able to open a business in the UAE, which provide UAE nationals with substantial financial security. This financial security influences national workforce choices most nationals prefer to work in the public sector. Moreover, although UAE nationals prefer to work in the public sector, there are still some positions in the public sector that are not very desirable among UAE nationals, according to Randeree (2009). One example of this is the forensic medicine profession. In 2006 it was announced that the first UAE national woman specialised in forensic medicine had qualified. Such professions are unattractive to UAE nationals for three reasons: first, it is not a very desirable profession due to the nature of the work content; second, the period of academic study before being qualified is lengthy; and third, the financial return compared with the time invested in education may not be worth it (Randeree, 2009). Forensic medicine might be considered a specialist profession; however there are also other professions, which do not hold interest for UAE nationals. In an interview with a national newspaper, Dr. Ali Al Numairy, the president of the Emirates Medical Association estimated that nationals represent no more than 10 to 20 per cent of the health care workforce in the UAE (Underwood, 2009). He stated a number of barriers keeping UAE nationals away from healthcare professions: first, the expansion of healthcare sector in the UAE was faster than the influx of Emirati health professionals, as a result, many of the jobs were initially taken by expatriates (Underwood, 2009). Dr. Al Numairy added; “The second reason is the number of students getting into medical school, or studying medical sub-specialties is less than the medical industry in the Emirates requires. There is always a shortage of newcomers” (Underwood, 2009). In Dr. Al Numairy’s opinion this shortage is very likely due to remuneration:

Dr. Al Numairy said a junior doctor in a governmental hospital could earn anything from Dh 15,000 to Dh 30,000 (US \$4,000- 8,000) a month but there is no standard. By comparison, a graduate with a civil engineering degree could expect to command a monthly income of between Dh 20,000 and Dh 40,000 (Underwood, 2009).

The other reason Dr. Al Numairy offers behind the low interest of UAE nationals in medical professions concerns job status:

Limiting the appeal of health care as a career among Emiratis is the perceived low status of medical professionals, especially in nursing. The Ministry of Health estimates only four per cent of around 18,000 nurses in the country are Emirati (Underwood, 2009).

According to El-Haddad (2006) the reasons behind low numbers of UAE nationals in nursing positions in the UAE are: the lack of Arabic educational resources, variations in nursing programmes in the country, the strict cultural norms and religious values by which UAE nationals live and the affluent life-style of UAE nationals.

4.3.2 Expatriate workforce

Expatriates in the UAE are mostly self-initiated expatriates who come to work in the UAE independently, outside of current employment relationships (Schoepp & Forstenlechner, 2010). Self-initiated expatriates are those who; “take advantage of the employment opportunities available in a global economy with a shortage of skilled workers” (Tharenou, 2008, p.183). There is a clear distinction between assigned and self-initiated expatriates. Assigned expatriates move to temporary assignments within their company, while self-initiated expatriates choose to work in a country different from their own or expatriate voluntarily and are self-motivated (Thomas et al., 2005). Little research has been undertaken on self-initiated expatriates (Tharenou, 2008).

The UAE is an attractive destination for expatriates. According to a recent study by careers website LinkedIn, this is the second year the UAE has been revealed most attractive destination for professional expatriates (Maceda, 2015). HSBC’s Expat Explorer 2015 survey reveals Dubai as the second best city globally for expat entrepreneurs, in The World Bank’s Ease of Doing Business index the UAE ranks 22nd globally out of 189 countries (*UAE among top 10 countries suited for expats: HSBC survey*, 2015). The UAE scores well in areas such as paying taxes, trading across borders, registering property, dealing with construction permits and trading across borders (*UAE among top 10 countries suited for expats: HSBC survey*, 2015). HSBC’s survey also reveals the UAE to be the 9th best place for expatriates for reasons such as opportunities for career progression, wage growth, generous benefits packages, annual airfare allowances and accommodation support (*UAE among top 10*

countries suited for expats: HSBC survey, 2015). Additionally, new arrivals find it easy to settle in the UAE because English is widely spoken and the expatriates' community is large and diverse, furthermore the UAE offers expatriates a high quality of life with modern medical facilities and accommodations, highly developed infrastructure and good international schools (*Expat explore survey 2015 focusing on the UAE and Italy, 2015*).

Self-initiated expatriates comprise the majority of the workforce in the UAE; the percentage of non-nationals in the whole workforce is around 90% (Harry, 2007). According to McMurray (1999), in general expatriates accept lower wages, work longer hours with more physically demanding jobs and under poorer working conditions compared to UAE nationals (McMurray, 1999). Most expatriates work in the private sector and they have three years visas that are maintained and get readily renewed because of work contracts (Elamin, 2011). Expatriate employees occupy a wide range of both private sector and public sector jobs (Elamin, 2011). However their salaries and allowances are typically lower than those of UAE nationals (Askari et al., 1998). This pay inequality may produce feelings of unfairness, which, in turn, affects expatriates' job satisfaction (Vidal et al., 2007). Moreover there is a problem of transferring knowledge and skills from expatriates to UAE nationals. Expatriates feel reluctant to share their knowledge with their national colleagues or subordinates, as they fear that nationals will take their position because of the Emiratisation policy (Randeree, 2009).

According to Elamin (2011, p.34); "nationality does make a difference with respect to satisfaction with work". The high levels of work satisfaction among UAE nationals seem to be influenced by the work-related privileges associated with being a UAE national (Elamin, 2011). These privileges are not accessible on the basis of technical qualifications, but rather on the basis of identity and family name (Elamin, 2011). Local work conditions create dissatisfaction among expatriates (Elamin, 2011). According to Elamin (2011) the presence of the large number of expatriate workers is a necessity for the UAE economy, however public policy is partially responsible for putting them down compared to nationals, which may contribute to creating a labour shortage.

4.4 Special trends in the UAE business environment

4.4.1 UAE nationalisation- Emiratisation:

The job nationalisation schemes of Arabian Gulf countries, such as Emiratisation, Saudisation and Omanisation, are being promoted and pursued as “effective ways” to tackle the employment challenges that citizens of these countries are facing (Alserhan et al., 2010). The workforce of Arabian Gulf countries; “is largely staffed by foreigners of a multitude of origins, but currently under pressure to admit citizens into its ranks” (Alserhan et al., 2010, p.42). This will change the currently diverse make up of organisations and move organisations closer to uniformity (Alserhan, et al, 2010). Organisations in the UAE are being put under pressure to move towards uniformity through Emiratisation, which Alserhan et al. (2010, p.45) define as; “employment quota-driven affirmative action policy that the country expects organisations to pursue.”

The UAE government is promoting employment and entrepreneurial activities among nationals, in particular, young UAE nationals (Jarrah, 2006). The UAE government is encouraging companies to hire UAE nationals through organisations such as the National Human Resource Development and Employment Authority (TANMIA) (Grant et al., 2007), and the Khalifa Fund, which announced in May 2011 that it was allocating Dh 440 million (\$119.81 million) to compensate for the lower pay scales in the private sector compared with the public sector, and to provide training programmes for UAE nationals to encourage and prepare them to enter the private sector (Emiritization.org). Moreover, The Ministry of Labour issued a decree in 2004 making it mandatory for companies in the trade sector that have 50 employees or more to have 2% Emiratisation (i.e. UAE nationals in their workforce), companies that achieve this target would have a reduction in governmental fees, while those that did not would face fines and increased fees (Randeree, 2009). However in 2006 only 9.2% of trade sector had met this quota according to the Ministry of Labour statistics (Randeree, 2009).

4.4.2 Challenges of Emiratisation

Nationalisation is the desired policy of all rulers of the Gulf Cooperative Council. However this policy is facing many difficulties in implementation, due to the demographic imbalance resulting from the high proportion of expatriates; challenges

related to national employment in the private sector; and the participation of women in the workforce; in addition to the high and increasing unemployment rates among nationals who are poorly trained (Randeree, 2009). According to the UAE National Bureau of Statistics, the unemployment rate of UAE nationals in 2008 was 13.8%, and in 2009 increased to 14.0%. Thus, there is a need for human resource development of UAE nationals (Randeree, 2009).

Despite the governmental efforts and programmes Emiratisation faces major obstacles, because nationals seek managerial positions and high wages and avoid menial jobs (Grant et al., 2007). The UAE government selected certain industries and set quotas for hiring a certain number of nationals that companies in these sectors should meet (Alserhan et al., 2010). These industries are banking, insurance and trade (Morris, 2005). However, the national population demographics may not be large enough to meet the required quotas (Golawala et al., 2006). Kawach (2009) states that, in 2008, the number of unemployed UAE nationals stood at 40,000, while the number of jobs in the private sector in the UAE was 4,079,000 jobs (Alserhan et al., 2010). In 2007, the percentage of UAE nationals working in the private sector in the country was 0.36% (Dubai Economic Council, 2009). According to Alserhan et al. (2010), the unemployed UAE nationals represent less than 1% of the total workforce in the private sector. Even if the government's goal were to reach 100% Emiratisation, it would not be possible to reach this goal according to Alserhan et al. (2010), because there are 892,000 citizens and 4,079,000 jobs in the private sector. Emiratisation has been applied more successfully in the public sector, with some departments reaching approximately 100% Emiratisation (Alserhan et al., 2010). However the implementation of Emiratisation in the private sector is more varied, for example banking is achieving good results, but not reaching the Emiratisation targets (Alserhan et al., 2010). Other industries are not achieving good results because of the dominant negative attitudes towards employing UAE nationals (Mellahi & Wood, 2002).

There is a current expatriate majority in the UAE because of the development plans to transform the country. Employing expatriates is a necessity, because the indigenous population is lacking in numbers and skills (Alserhan et al., 2010). The availability of expatriate labour results in putting a downward pressure on wages (Fasano & Goyal, 2004), which decreases the incentives of UAE nationals to work or compete in many

sectors (Bremmer, 2004). UAE nationals prefer to work in the public sector because it offers higher salaries, job security, better employment conditions and mostly shorter working hours (Godwin, 2006; Kuntze & Hormann, 2006). Emiratisation has become a necessity because “the cost of expatriate labour is generally, considerably less than that of national labour, which makes it considerably cheaper for employers to hire qualified, experienced expatriates at wages most Emiratis would not accept” (Alserhan et al., 2010, p.46). The sole driver for Emiratisation; “is to increase the employment rates of citizens in both public and private sectors. Performance considerations thus far seem to take a back seat” (Alserhan et al., 2010, p.46). The Emiratisation initiative started because of the levels of unemployment of nationals, as the government could not continue being the only employer of nationals, with all the growth of non-oil sectors that depend on expatriate labour (UAE, 2007).

The Emiratisation policy is not proposed to manage workforce diversity, rather it is a policy to increase the representation of UAE nationals in all fields. According to Alserhan et al. (2010, p.45); “the Emiratisation policy is not designed or promoted as a diversity management initiative but as means that will give Emiratis what is considered “rightfully” theirs; superior job opportunities with superior pay”. UAE nationals receive far better remuneration, and have higher job security, as noted by Alserhan et al. (2010, p. 46):

Average pay for Emiratis in both sectors is at least three times that of expatriates. Emiratis cannot be fired except after a very lengthy and tiresome legal procedure, while expatriates have very little job security... Expatriates are easily fired, get little compensation if they are fired.

4.4.3 Problems Caused by Emiratisation

One of the main negative effects of Emiratisation is its influence on the morale of the workforce and the organisational culture. Alserhan et al. (2010) explain that the diverse groups of expatriates feel that nationals, due to the Emiratisation policy, would replace them. Thus, they are reluctant to share their knowledge or skills with other employees in order to remain sought after by their companies. It is common in UAE organisations to observe employees of the same nationality, who practice the same religion and speak the same language forming amalgamations that are hard to enter by other groups. Furthermore, they often recommend their friends and relatives to their managers in hope of increasing their number in the organisation (Alserhan et

al., 2010). Such workplace atmosphere discourages workgroup cohesiveness, especially when group members are from different nationalities and practice different religions, it creates a transient working environment with high turnover numbers and low affective organisational commitment (Al Ali, 2008).

4.5 Expatriate Family Concerns

Family is one of the main reasons for expatriate difficulties (Schoepp & Forstenlechner, 2010). “The majority of expatriate literature emphasizes the crucial role of family in making or breaking the expatriate experiences, both in the case of assigned as well as self-initiated expatriates” (Schoepp & Forstenlechner, 2010, p. 310). The role of family is emphasised as having a major influence on the performance and premature return of expatriates (Bauer & Taylor, 2001; Richardson, 2006). According to Richardson (2006), the role of family is relevant to the decision process for both self-initiated expatriates and assigned expatriates. One of the main reasons for expatriate failure is the inability of spouses to adjust (Tung, 1981; Black & Stephens, 1989, Black et al., 1991; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2004). According to Richardson (2006), the decision to stay or go abroad for self-initiated expatriation is highly influenced by spouses and children. According to Lee (2007, p.403) “the inability on the part of the expatriate family to adjust to the foreign environment” is the main determinant of expatriation failure.

GCC countries depend on self-initiated expatriates to fill positions in both public and private sectors (Schoepp & Forstenlechner, 2010). According to an HSBC (2008) survey, the UAE is one of the best locations to be an expat. Expatriates are either working or accompanying a family member who is working in the UAE. The UAE has favourable living conditions for professional expatriates (Schoepp & Forstenlechner, 2010). The living conditions are so good that many international companies no longer give hardship premiums to the employees they send for work assignments to the UAE (Latta & Cummins, 2007).

Most research on the effect of family on expatriates has concluded that spouse and family adjustments are the main reason for expatriate difficulties (Bauer & Taylor, 2001; Black et al., 1991; Black & Stephens, 1989; Tung, 1981). Yet for expatriates in the UAE this is not the case. According to a study conducted by Schoepp &

Forstenlechner (2010) on higher education faculty members in the UAE they concluded that; “it appears that family-related variables were reasons for the expatriates to remain” (Schoepp & Forstenlechner, 2010, p. 317).

In support of the assertion of the UAE being an environment with comparably easy adjustments, the overall results of the family-related items were quite positive in that the three in-country variables were identified as either a motivation to remain or a strong motivation to remain which indicates that these family issues help expatriates in the UAE rather than push them away. (Schoepp & Forstenlechner, 2010, p. 317).

Schoepp and Forstenlechner (2010) found that most expatriates look at the following elements as motivators to stay: first, adjustment and adaptation of spouse and family; second, employment opportunities for spouse; third, children’s schools. According to Schoepp and Forstenlechner (2010, p.317); “the wide array of private schools which cater to the different ethnic groups appear to be meeting the needs of foreign communities as a whole, and parents seem to be satisfied with the quality of the schools on offer.” Schoepp and Forstenlechner (2010) found that the UAE environment eases the adjustment of expatriates; moreover expatriate families in the UAE are more a motivation to stay rather than to leave. In the UAE, “family-related variables do not seem to push expatriates away but rather act as a pull in motivating them to remain” (Schoepp & Forstenlechner, 2010, p.319).

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the economic and labour market contexts of the research, identifying the key elements that will shape this research, such as the workforce composition and the nature of the expatriate workforce. Self-initiated expatriates make up the majority of the workforce in the UAE because of the attractive job opportunities, good healthcare and education, high incomes and good standards of living. Nevertheless, self-initiated expatriates face challenges in this work environment related to job security, pay and promotion inequality. The nationalization initiative, adopted by all public and private companies in the UAE, result in perceived job insecurity among expatriates, in addition to feelings of injustice because they are not entitled to the same pay or promotion opportunities that are offered to nationals.

The UAE has favourable living conditions for professional expatriates, yet expatriates face various challenges that may result in high organisational turnover. The next chapter addresses the methodology of this study and explains the research steps, along with the logic behind selecting quantitative methods for this research.

Chapter Five- Methodology

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Chapter Five: Methodology

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapters have outlined the aim of this thesis and the proposed theoretical model. This chapter presents the research methodology used to study the determinants of employee turnover intentions in healthcare organisations in the United Arab Emirates. The chapter is divided into seven sections: Section two explains different research methodologies; it also identifies the methodology choice for this research. Section three discusses the concept of ‘methodology fit’ and uses a framework to explain the selected methodology for this research. It also outlines a number of key studies in employee turnover literature that use quantitative research methods. Finally it relates choice of methodology to the research context by examining a number of studies undertaken in the UAE healthcare sector. Section four addresses the steps, issues and problems encountered in the process of gaining access to the research sites. Section five explains the fieldwork and steps used to collect data. Section six presents the role of the researcher. Finally section seven lists the survey items and their reliability.

5.2 Research Methodology

This section considers the basic concepts of research methodology by outlining the differences between the quantitative, qualitative and mixed-method approaches. It also addresses the criteria for selecting on appropriate research approach, for this study.

Quantitative research tests objective theories by examining the relationship between variables (Creswell, 2009). These variables are measured using an instrument, for example a questionnaire, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical methods. Quantitative research is based on numerical measurements of certain aspects of phenomena. It uses numbers and statistical methods, and it implements measurements and analyses that should be able to be easily replicated by other researchers (King, Keohane & Verba, 1994, p.3-4). Quantitative methods are supported by the *positivist (or scientific) paradigm* that regards the world as made up of observable and measurable facts (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p.5). Positivism is based on accepting that the world around us is real and that we can find information about

these realities (Walliman, 2010). Positivists believe that knowledge is gained or derived using scientific methods, through experiments or mathematical models and quantitative analysis to refine, validate, or reject hypotheses (Walliman, 2010). Quantitative researchers use a deductive approach that begins with general statements, and comes to specific conclusions through logical arguments.

The role of the researcher in quantitative research is that of a neutral observer who aims to measure and observe the data without “contaminating” it through personal involvement (Walliman, 2010). Thus researcher objectivity is very important in quantitative research (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p. 6). Quantitative research has been criticised because it forces research participants to choose a response formulated by the researcher, which, in turn, limits the process of understanding the meaning and interpretation of specific issues (Bryman & Bell, 2003, p.86). The goal of quantitative research is to examine causes that result in outcomes, thus a quantitative approach is most suitable when a research problem aims to investigate those factors that affect an outcome or the best predictors of outcomes. Quantitative methods can also be used to test theory (Creswell, 2009).

Qualitative research explores and attempts to understand the meaning individuals or groups give to social or human problems (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative research involves emerging questions and data are normally collected in the participant’s setting. The researcher makes an interpretation and draws meaning from the data. Qualitative researchers use an inductive approach; they focus on individual meaning and the complexity of the situation (Creswell, 2009). Inductive reasoning starts from a specific observation or experience, and develops a conclusion from them (Walliman, 2010). Qualitative methods are supported by the *interpretivist paradigm* that views a world in which reality is complex, socially constructed and ever changing (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p. 8).

The qualitative approach should be used if there is a need to understand a phenomenon or a concept. It should also be used if the studied topic is new, has never been studied with a certain sample or context, or the existing theories do not apply to the sample being studied (Morse, 1991). The nature of qualitative research is explanatory, thus it is useful when the researcher does not have a set of variables to

investigate, or does not know which are the important variables to examine (Creswell, 2009, p.18). Qualitative methods have been criticized for their subjectivity and the difficulty of replication (Bryman & Bell, 2003, p. 299)

Most researchers tend to favour using either the quantitative or the qualitative research approach. Nevertheless neither is superior to the other (King, Keohane, & Verba, 1994). The third research approach is a combination of the two. Mixed-method research is an approach that uses quantitative and qualitative methods, not merely combining both kinds of data, but employing both approaches so the overall strength of the study is greater (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Mixed methods are used when either quantitative or qualitative methods are not sufficient to study a problem, or where the research results will be more robust if both approaches are used (Creswell, 2009).

This thesis employs quantitative methods because the aim of this research is to examine the relationship between different variables and employee turnover intention. By definition quantitative research is, “a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables” (Creswell, 2009, p. 4). The dependent variable, which is employee turnover intention and the independent variables, which are a number of determinants of employee turnover intention are measured using a questionnaire. Quantitative methods have been the main approach used in employee turnover research for decades. The section below presents a model for research methodology fit that explains the rationale behind selecting a quantitative research approach for this thesis.

5.3 Methodology - Fit

Quantitative and qualitative research methods can be used effectively in the same research project (Strauss, et al., 1964). However most researchers use either quantitative or qualitative methods as their primary research method, partially out of conviction, and also due to researcher training and the nature of the research studied (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p.18). Edmondson and McManus (2007) highlight the importance of methodological fit in field research in organisations. According to Edmondson and McManus (2007, p.1155) methodological fit is the; “internal consistency among elements of a research project—research question, prior work,

research design, and theoretical contribution.” Edmondson and McManus introduce a framework for assessing methodological fit; their framework is used to explain the methodology choice for this research.

The state of prior knowledge of the examined research topic is a key determinant of research methodology (McGrath, 1964). Edmondson and McManus (2007, p.1158) suggest that theory in management research falls along a continuum which can be split into three categories: *Mature theory*; “presents well-developed constructs and models that have been studied over time with increasing precision by a variety of scholars, resulting in a body of work consisting of points of broad agreement that represent cumulative knowledge gained.” Mature theory typically uses quantitative data. In contrast to mature theory is *nascent theory*, which; “proposes tentative answers to novel questions of how and why, often merely suggesting new connections among phenomena”. Nascent theory typically uses qualitative data. Positioned between mature and nascent theories is *intermediate theory*. Intermediate theory “presents provisional explanations of phenomena, often introducing a new construct and proposing relationships between it and established constructs”. Intermediate theory typically uses mixed data, quantitative and qualitative.

Following these categories, research on voluntary employee turnover and turnover intention falls under the mature theory approach. Research on employee turnover goes back to March and Simon’s (1958) *organisational equilibrium model*, which has been followed by many well-developed constructs and models (Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981; Price & Muller, 1986; Brooke, Russell & Price, 1988; Price, 2001; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Steers & Mowday, 1981; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1999; Mitchell et al., 2001).

In mature theory research, a researcher might; “test a theory in a new setting, identify or clarify the boundaries of a theory, examine a mediating mechanism, or provide new support for or against previous work” (Edmondson & McManus, 2007, p.1159). This is achieved by developing specific testable hypotheses based on logical arguments that build on prior work. This thesis aims to study voluntary turnover intentions in a non-western context through examining the generalisability of existing turnover models in the UAE, where expatriate employees make up the majority of the workforce. There

are two main approaches to conceptualising employee turnover, namely, the *job satisfaction* approach and the *embeddedness* approach. This research tests a number of specific hypotheses about the generalizability of these two approaches in a new context. Therefore the methodology that best fits this thesis is quantitative methodology, according to Edmondson and McManus's (2007) framework. With employee turnover being a mature theory, using qualitative methods may present a poor fit because they risk "rediscovering known factors" (Edmondson & McManus, 2007, p.1169). Similarly, using a mix of quantitative and qualitative research methods may result in the "uneven status of evidence": combining qualitative and quantitative data may lengthen the research without increasing the conclusion strength, qualitative data may present processes but it does not prove or test hypotheses as well as quantitative data (Edmondson & Mcmanus, 2007, p.1169).

Edmondson and McManus (2007) suggest that mature theory research should depend only on quantitative data. If the researcher has qualitative data it could be used as an introduction, to familiarise the reader with an unusual context or to illustrate a finding, but not to be used as formal evidence. When the researcher creates good hypotheses from previous research and new logic and can prove or disprove these with quantitative analyses, adding qualitative methods can present risks. In this case; "the qualitative data are redundant and may undermine the clarity of the quantitative analyses if presented as results rather than as background or illustrative material" (Edmondson & McManus, 2007, p.1171). Therefore, this research depends primarily on quantitative data collected using a questionnaire.

Any qualitative data gathered using an open-ended question in the questionnaire or through conversations the primary researcher has with participants are presented as background and illustrative material. It is important to note here that qualitative data are not collected in the form of formal interviews. Qualitative data are collected through conversations with the participants as the questionnaires are distributed, and as already noted, using the open-ended question at the back of the questionnaire.

5.3.1 Methodology - Employee Turnover Studies Fit

The study of employee turnover began in the late 1950s with March and Simon's (1958) propositions of perceived ease and desirability of movement. At the time, the

quantitative research approach was the main approach used in social sciences. According to Creswell (2009), interest in qualitative research started during the late half of the 20th century.

One of the most influential model in employee turnover is the causal turnover model proposed by Price and Mueller (1981), who studied the turnover of nurses in seven hospitals. Using a longitudinal, quantitative design. They used two steps: The first step involved distributing a questionnaire to nurses by mail, followed by identifying those nurses who had left the hospital one year of distributing after the distribution of the questionnaire. Agho et al. (1992) proposed a revision of the causal model and tested the revised causal model of job satisfaction on a sample of diverse occupational groups in healthcare organisations; these groups included white-collar employees (such as physicians, nurses, dentists, psychologists, medical technologists and social workers,) and blue-collar employees (such as maintenance, and housekeeping workers). Agho, Mueller, and Price (1992) collected the two-stage longitudinal data by means of two questionnaires. Other examples of researchers using quantitative methods in employee turnover research include: Rusbult and Farrell (1983), who studied the effects of rewards, costs, alternatives, investments and commitment on employee turnover among accountants and nurses using quantitative methods only. Additionally, Jackofsky and Slocum (1987) examined the effect of job performance on hotel employees' turnover intentions and turnover using quantitative methods. Sheridan and Abelson (1983) studied the effect of temporal dynamics of decreasing commitment and increasing job tension on the turnover of nursing employees using questionnaires administered at different stages.

Another key model in employee turnover is Mobley's (1977) intermediate linkage model. Hom, Griffeth and Sellaro (1984) examined the validity of Mobley's (1977) model of employee turnover by administering surveys to 192 employees in a large hospital in the US. Participants were asked to identify themselves on the questionnaire to match survey responses to actual turnover. At the turn of the 21st century a number of scholars studied the role of temporal shifts on employee turnover using quantitative methods. Hom and Kinicki (2001) tested how job satisfaction progressed into turnover by surveying managers, auto mechanics, and salespersons working at an automotive retail store in the USA. Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005) studied the influence of time

and employment duration on employee turnover determinants using surveys distributed at five stages during a period of two years. Chen et al. (2011) analysed the relationship between job satisfaction change and turnover intention using surveys.

These examples demonstrate how employee turnover research relies heavily on quantitative research methods. In addition, more recent models of employee turnover were also examined and justified using quantitative research methods. Lee et al. (1999) consider the validity of the unfolding model of voluntary turnover by surveying employees who had recently quit accounting firms in the US. Lee et al. (1999) used random sampling and achieved a response rate of 20.4%, which, according to them, is comparable to that typically found in accounting research. Holtom and Inderrieden (2006) examine the effect of integrating the unfolding model and the embeddedness model using questionnaires. Finally, Morrell et al. (2008) test the unfolding model of voluntary turnover in eight large hospitals in the National Health Service (NHS) in the UK, by sending questionnaires to nurses who have recently quit the organisation. They achieved a response rate of 31%. These examples further demonstrate how research on employee turnover has primarily been of quantitative nature. However some employee turnover studies have used the mixed-method approach, such as Lee et al. (2004). Here the researchers focused on group discussion with ten randomly selected employees and asked them about factors that would embed them in their job or community. Using the focus group information, the researchers tailored their survey to the particular research site. Yet their findings and discussion depended primarily on quantitative data and survey results.

5.3.2 Methodology Context Fit

The quantitative research approach has been used in several studies in the United Arab Emirates context. Random sampling is the sampling method of choice when possible, as the following studies demonstrate. To begin with, Barhem et al. (2011) investigated workplace stress and its related patterns among healthcare employees in the UAE, using a questionnaire administered to 175 participants from different public and private healthcare organisations in the UAE. In a similar study, Barhem, Younies and Younis (2010) examined the factors influencing healthcare employees' motivation and satisfaction in healthcare organisations in the UAE using a questionnaire. Their questionnaires were randomly distributed to healthcare employees in 18 hospitals all

over the UAE. Suliman and Al-Sabri (2009) also studied satisfaction and motivation in healthcare in the UAE. In particular they studied the relationship between demographic variables, job satisfaction, work motivation, and work performance, using a self-administered questionnaire they developed and randomly distributed to 300 healthcare employees. Quantitative research methods and random sampling have also been used in studies conducted in other industries in the UAE. For example, Shaw, Delery and Abdulla (2003) investigated the relationship between affective organisational commitment, guest worker status and each of overall performance and helping individual performance at two commercial banks in the UAE by means of a questionnaire. These studies demonstrate that quantitative methods with random sampling have been successfully used in the UAE context.

5.4 Research Access

After obtaining ethical approval from Kings College London, I applied for the ethical approval of my employer in the United Arab Emirates, Zayed University. Zayed University is one of three public universities in the UAE. Ethical approval from a governmental organisation such as a public university helps in gaining access to healthcare organisations in the UAE. Part of the ethical approval process at Zayed University involved taking an online certificate offered by CITI (Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative). The title of the certificate is: Social and Behavioural Research - Basic/Refresher. This certificate has proven helpful in all ethical approval applications to healthcare organisations.

Soon after obtaining ethical approval from Zayed University I started contacting public hospitals in the capital city of the UAE, Abu Dhabi. The aim was to gain access to two public hospitals in Abu Dhabi. Management studies in the Arab Gulf (the UAE included) have found that executives and employees in the region prefer a personal approach to meetings, and favor face-to-face interactions to other means of communications (Jackson, 2008). From my work experience in the UAE, I found that face-to-face interactions are the most efficient way of communication. Thus, I decided to visit public hospitals in person to inquire about research access. Additionally, none of the public hospitals I approached have any information about research access or ethical approval in their websites. Therefore visiting the hospitals was necessary. There are four public hospitals in Abu Dhabi, all of which were approached, and

ethical approval applications were submitted to these hospitals. Access was granted by two public hospitals:

- 1- Al Corniche Hospital granted me access, and the head of the ethical approval committee was very supportive and appreciated the value of such research. Corniche Hospital is a Joint Commission International (JCI) accredited institution and a leading referral hospital for neonatal care and obstetric. It is a 235-bed hospital with over 120,000 outpatients per year. The hospital offers inpatient, outpatient, and specialty care services. It is also a premier teaching facility (Seha.ae). The hospital has professional staff of 1200 employees (cornichehospital.ae).
- 2- Imperial College London Diabetes Centre granted me access. Their ethical approval was based on the ethical approval already obtained from King's College London and Zayed University. The Imperial College London Diabetes Centre (ICLDC) was established in May 2006. The centre receives up to 200 outpatients a week and is linked to 145-bed facility. The centre offers diabetes prevention, education and treatment (icldc.ae). The centre has more than 600 employees (icldc.ae)

5.5 Fieldwork

5.5.1 Pilot study

The first phase of the research involved testing the developed questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed to five expatriate nurses, two doctors and three administrators working in public hospitals in the UAE. Two of the five nurses are from India and three are from the Philippines, their tenure ranges from three years to 10 years. Both doctors are from the UK with tenures of two and eight years. Finally, the three administrators are from Jordan, Syria and Canada with tenures ranging from two to nine years.

The results of the ten questionnaires were promising and only a few minor adjustments were made to the questionnaire in the light of the pilot results. Few scales were shortened after the pilot, such as the job satisfaction scale, the affective organisational commitment scale and the job security scale. To begin with, the job

satisfaction scale was adopted from Price (2001) and Kim et al. (1996). One item was removed from the scale, which is: “I would consider taking another kind of job” as participants in the pilot study expressed their confusion to whether the question is asking about changing jobs within the organisation, or working in another organisation, or changing the type of job they are doing. It was also removed to increase the reliability of the measure.

The affective organisational commitment scale was adopted from Allen and Meyer (1990). The scale was shortened based on the recommendations of the participants in the pilot study and to increase the reliability of the measure. Two of the items were particularly troubling according to participants in the pilot study. The first one being “I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it”, which was removed as most of the participants in the pilot thought this might violate a term in their contracts, which states that they are not allowed to discuss organisational related matters or reveal information about their organisations for confidentiality issues. The second one is “I think I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one”, which was removed based on recommendations from participants in the pilot study as they expressed their confusion because the item should indicated that the individual would become as attached to another organisation once they leave this one, and not during their current employment. As stated earlier, the items were also removed to increase the reliability of the scale.

The job security scale is adopted from De Witte’s (2000) *job insecurity inventory*. The participants in the pilot study expressed their confusion regarding one item of the scale, which is: “I am certain/sure of my job environment”. The item was removed along with other two items to increase the reliability of the measure.

Other changes that resulted from the pilot study include adding synonym words for some of the words that were found unclear. For example, in the second item of the turnover intention scale the synonym was added between brackets to clarify the meaning “I would be reluctant (unwilling) to leave this hospital”. Another example is adding the synonym to the word sacrifice in the embeddedness scale “I would sacrifice (give up) a lot if I left this job.”

5.5.2 Corniche Hospital: Data collection began at Corniche Hospital in the summer of 2014. The HR manager gave me a signed letter to show to employees when asked to participate. She also identified the locations and timings where and when data collection could take place.

The survey distribution was undertaken randomly; Doctors, nurses, and administrators were approached in the hospital cafeteria and after departmental meeting and educational seminars. I would approach an employee; explain to them the research I was conducting, give them the information sheet and the questionnaire; ask them not to write any information that would identify them to guarantee their anonymity; and encourage them to fill out the questionnaire and place it in a designated box. Research participants were asked to place the completed questionnaires in a box for two reasons: First, individuals in the UAE are not familiar with returning questionnaires by mail; Second, in order to guarantee the confidentiality of participants it made sense for them not to return the questionnaires to a specific person, including myself. I found that participants were very comfortable with the locked box idea.

5.5.3 Imperial College London Diabetes Centre: Data collection started at the Diabetes Centre in the summer of 2014. The HR manager sent an email to all employees notifying them that they would be approached to participate in the research. The HR manager assigned a time for me to approach employees once a week before and after an educational seminar. All employees are expected to attend at least one educational seminar per month, therefore the location and time for contacting employees was very convenient. Doctors, nurses and administrators were approached randomly. The completed questionnaires were collected in the same way as with Corniche Hospital. Participants placed the completed questionnaires in an envelope and then in a locked box.

5.6 Role of the Researcher

The values, gender, culture and socioeconomic status of the researcher has all been an influence on the researcher's interpretation of data (Creswell, 2009). This is more evident in qualitative research, whereas in quantitative research the researcher should be a neutral observer who only observes and measures the data without contaminating them through personal involvement (Walliman, 2010). Due to the importance of the

research objectivity in quantitative research this section discusses my position in this research. To begin with, I am Arabic with Iraqi origins, and I have Canadian nationality; therefore in the UAE, I am an Arab expatriate, with a Western nationality. I have been living in the UAE for nine years, which helps me understand the blend of Arabic and Islamic culture with modernization that distinguishes the UAE from other Arab Gulf states. I also have a background in healthcare in the UAE. I worked for more than four years at a public hospital as a Medical Physicist; my duties included conducting radiation safety tests and radiation safety educational seminars for staff.

Being part of the expatriate community in the UAE, and having previous work experience in the health care industry has helped me with the data collection. Although I did not collect data in a hospital I worked at, I nevertheless felt accustomed to the atmosphere and the nature of relationships in the hospitals. There are potential disadvantages of being embedded in the culture and not having an external perspective which may lead to overlooking certain cultural distinctions (Burgess, 1993). However I believe that the quantitative approach I used, and the steps I took to ensure the anonymity of participants protect the data from being contaminated with my perspective of the results. For example, it is not possible to link any of the completed questionnaires to a participant name, or identity.

5.7 Questionnaire

5.7.1 Questionnaire Design

The design of the questionnaire includes an introduction page stating the name of the researcher, the name of the university and the name of the hospital. It also includes instructions on how to complete the questionnaire and a statement ensuring participants that all information collected is strictly confidential. Followed by the first section that includes questions about the respondent's job. The second section includes questions about the hospital where the respondent works. The third section includes questions about the respondent. At the end of the questionnaire there is an open-ended question asking respondents to describe any other issues they want to raise.

5.7.2 Questionnaire Items

This section lists the scales used to assess the dependent variable, independent variables and controls. The scales were examined for their reliability using Cronbach's alpha, with a score above 0.7 usually considered as reliable (Bryman & Bell, 2003). Most of the scales include all the original items apart from few such as the job satisfaction scale, the affective organisational commitment scale and the job security scale. Aside from the reasons mentioned in the pilot study section, scales are only reduced to increase the reliability of the measure. The vast majority of the scales used are established and have previously been tested for their validity. A few new questions have been added by the researcher to assess reasons to expatriate. Three healthcare managers, one national and two expatriates reviewed the questions to ensure that the questions took into account issues of cultural sensitivity.

All items used a five-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = unsure, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. Where needed, items were reversed before the analysis. Presented below are the scales used and the results of the reliability and factor analyses:

5.7.2.1 Dependent Variable:

Intention to Quit was measured using the following items: "I plan to leave this hospital as soon as possible"; "I would be reluctant (unwilling) to leave this hospital"; and "I often think about leaving this hospital" (Price, 2001; Kim et al., 1996). Reliability for this scale is: 0.80

5.7.2.2 Independent Variables - Satisfaction Model:

Job satisfaction was measured using a four-item scale, which included: "I find real enjoyment with my job"; "I am rarely bored with my job"; "I am fairly well satisfied with my job"; and "I like my job better than the average person does" (Price, 2001; Kim et al., 1996). The second item was deleted from the scale as it caused confusion among respondents. Reliability for this scale is: 0.81.

Affective organisational commitment was measured using a four-item scale: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation"; "I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation"; "This organisation has a great deal of

personal meaning for me”; and “I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation” (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Reliability for this scale is: 0.62.

Pay satisfaction was measured using a three-item scale: “I am very happy with the amount of money I make”; “Considering my skills and the amount of effort I put into my work, I am very satisfied with my pay”; and “My pay is fair considering what other people in this organisation are paid” (Cammann et al., 1983). Reliability for this scale is: 0.88.

Distributive justice was measured using a three-item scale: “I am recognised fairly for the amount of effort that I put in”; “I am rewarded fairly considering the responsibilities that I have”; and “I am not rewarded fairly considering my education and training” (Price & Mueller, 1986). Reliability for this scale is: 0.79.

Autonomy was measured using a three-item scale adopted from Sims, Szilagyi and Keller (1976): “I’m able to do my job independently of others”; “I’m able to act independently of my superior to perform the job function”; and “I have control over the space of my work”. Reliability for this scale is: 0.76.

Promotional chances were measured using a four-item scale: “Promotional opportunities are widely available”; “There are opportunities for personal development at this hospital” (Price & Mueller, 1986). “There is a very good chance to get ahead”; and “There is no chance for promotion, I am in a dead-end job” (Price & Mueller, 1986; Price, 2001; Kim et al., 1996). Reliability for this scale is: 0.77.

Co-worker support was measured using a three-item scale: “My co-workers are helpful to me in getting the job done”; “My co-workers can be relied upon when things get difficult in my job”; and “My co-workers are willing to listen to my job-related problems” (Price, 2001; Kim et al., 1996). Reliability for this scale is: 0.81.

Workgroup cohesiveness (Relational demography) was measured using a scale adopted from Shaw (1981) and Riordan and Shore (1997): “Most employees in my workgroup get along well with each other”; “Most of the employees in my workgroup respect each other”; “Most of the employees in my workgroup trust each other”;

“Most of the employees in my workgroup do their fair share of the work”; “Most of the employees in my workgroup cooperate to get the job done”; “Most of the employees in my workgroup are willing to share ideas and information”; and “In my workgroup there is strong teamwork”. Reliability for this scale is: 0.71.

Managerial support was measured using a three-item scale: “My manager provides me with timely feedback about decisions made”; “My manager praises good work”; and “My manager is very concerned about the welfare of those under him/her” (Cammann et al., 1983). Reliability for this scale is: 0.92.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) was measured using a scale adopted from Scandura and Graen (1984): “I usually feel that I know where I stand and I usually feel that I know how satisfied my supervisor is with what I do”; “My supervisor understands my problems and needs”; “My supervisor recognizes my abilities and potential”; “I have enough confidence in my supervisor that I would defend and justify his/her decisions if he/she were not present to do so”; and “My working relationship with my supervisor is effective.” Reliability for this scale is: 0.93.

Procedural justice was measured using a four-item scale: “This hospital has procedures to ensure that decisions affecting employees are consistent”; “This hospital takes into account the concerns of employees when making decisions”; “This hospital provides useful feedback regarding decisions made by management”; and “This hospital acts on the feedback they receive from employees” (Moorman, 1991). Reliability for this scale is: 0.91.

5.7.2.3 Independent Variables - Embeddeness Model:

Job Embeddeness: job embeddedness was measured using a scale developed by Felps et al. (2009), the scale includes six sub-scales presented below:

On-the-job fit was measured using a three-item scale: “My job utilises my skills and talents well”; “I feel like I’m a good match for my organisation”; and “If I stay with my organisation, I will be able to achieve most of my goals”. Reliability for this scale is: 0.81.

On-the-job links were measured using a three-item scale: “I am a member of an effective work group”; “I work closely with my coworkers”; and “On the job, I interact frequently with my work group members”. Reliability for this scale is: 0.83.

On-the-job sacrifice was measured using a three-item scale: “I have a lot of freedom in this job to pursue my goals”; “I would sacrifice (give up) a lot if I left this job”; and “I believe the prospects for continuing employment with my organisation are excellent”. Reliability for this scale is: 0.68.

On-the-job embeddendess is the combination of the three previous scales, a total of nine items, has a reliability of: 0.82

Off-the-fob fit was measured using a three-item scale: “I really love the place where I live”; “The place where I live is a good match for me”; and “The area where I live offers the leisure activities that I like (sports, outdoor activities, cultural events and arts)”. Reliability for this scale is: 0.85.

Off-the-job links were measured using a three-item scale: “My family roots are in this community”; “I am active in one or more community organisations (e.g., mosques, churches, sports teams, schools, etc.)”; and “I participate in cultural and recreational activities in my local area”. Reliability for this scale is: 0.83.

Off-the-job sacrifice was measured using a three-item scale: “Leaving the community where I live would be very hard”; “If I were to leave the community, I would miss my non-work friends”; and “If I were to leave the area where I live, I would miss my neighborhood”. Reliability for this scale is: 0.81.

Off-the-job embeddendess is the combination of the three previous scales, a total of nine items, has a reliability of: 0.70

Shock was measured using a three-item scale adopted from Lee et al. (1999): “There is a single particular personal event that is causing me to think about quitting”; “There is a single particular work related event that is causing me to think about quitting”;

and “There are series of events that are causing me to think about quitting”. Reliability for this scale is: 0.76.

5.7.2.4 Other Variables:

Job security was measured using items adopted from De Witte’s (2000) *job insecurity inventory*: “I think that I will be able to continue working in this hospital”; “There is only a small chance that I will become unemployed”; “I am very sure that I will be able to keep my job”; “I fear that I might lose my job”; “There is a possibility that I might lose my job in the near future”; and “I think that I might be dismissed in the near future”. Reliability for this scale is: 0.73.

Kinship responsibility index (KRI) was adopted from Blegen et al. (1988) and Mellor et al. (2001).

1. Marital status: 0-Single, and 1-Married
2. How many dependents (e.g. children, relatives) live with you: 0-None, 1-One, 2-Two, 3- Three, and 4-Four or more.
3. Relatives living within 50 miles: 0-None, and 1-One or more.
4. Spouse (husband/wife) living within 50 miles: 0-None, 1-One or more.

Reasons to Live/ Work in the UAE (for expatriate employees): five items developed by the researcher investigated reasons expatriates choose to live and work in the UAE. These items were developed out of Tharenou and Caulfield’s (2010, p.1010) reasons for self-initiated expatriation: “To explore a new culture and gain life experience”; “To get a job with attractive pay and benefits”; “To develop my professional skills and earn a good income”; “To join my family/spouse who live in the UAE”; and “To enjoy the life-style in the UAE”

5.7.2.5 Control variables:

1- Physical health was assessed using the participant’s perception of his/her health status: “In general, my physical health is good”; “Compared to other people my own age that I know, my physical health is poor”; and “Since working in this hospital, my health has been excellent” (Cyphert, 1990).

2- Positive affectivity was measured using a three-item scale: “For me life is a great adventure”; “I live a very interesting life”; and “I usually find ways to liven up my day” (Agho, Mueller & Price, 1992). Reliability for this scale is: 0.75.

3- Negative affectivity was measured using a three-item scale: “Minor setbacks sometimes irritate me too much”; “Often I get irritated at little annoyances”; and “There are days when I’m “on edge” all of the time” (Agho et al., 1992). Reliability for this scale is: 0.71.

4- Employment history was assessed using two elements, tenure and number of jobs held previously in the UAE. Tenure assessment included tenure in the position, in the organisation and in healthcare.

Personal Characteristics:

6- Sex was measured with a binary ‘Male’ or ‘Female’ scale (Male=1, Female=2).

7- Age was measured by asking respondents to numerically represent their age.

8- Occupation was measured using multiple-choice format including four choices:

1- Administrator

2- Doctor

3- Nurse

4- Other, with space available after other to list the occupation

9- Educational Level was measured using multiple-choice format including four choices:

1-High school diploma

2-Bachelor

3-Masters

4-PhD

10- Nationality was measured by asking respondent to write their nationality.

11- Years Lived in the UAE for non-nationals was measured by asking respondents to numerically represent the number of years they lived in the UAE.

12- Sex of your Direct Supervisor was measured with a binary ‘Male’ or ‘Female’ scale (Male=1, Female=2).

13- Nationality of your Direct Supervisor was measured by asking respondent to write their nationality.

5.8 Response Rate and Respondents

A total of 700 questionnaires were distributed in the two hospitals and 261 questionnaires were collected (37%). Out of the 261 questionnaires; 204 completed questionnaires were collected from expatriate employees. Some, 32 completed questionnaires were collected from national employees.

In hospital one (Corniche Hospital) 500 questionnaires were distributed and 180 questionnaires were collected, yielding a response rate of 36%. Out of the 180 collected questionnaires 36 had missing data, therefore only 144 questionnaires from hospital one were complete and could be used in data analysis. On the other hand, 200 questionnaires were distributed in hospital two (Imperial College Diabetes Center) and 81 questionnaires were collected, yielding a response rate of 40%. Sixty questionnaires were fully completed and usable for the analysis.

Respondents were a diverse group of expatriates from 23 nationalities: 59 from India (28.92%), 48 from the Philippines (23.53%), 26 from the UK (12.75%), nine from Pakistan (4.41%), eight from Jordan (3.92%), seven from Canada (3.43%), seven from South Africa (3.43%), six from Lebanon (2.94%), six from the USA (2.94%), four from Oman (1.96%), three from Palestine (1.47%), three from Egypt (1.47%), three from Sri Lanka (1.47%), three from Syria (1.47%), two from Iraq (0.98%), two from Nepal (0.98%), two from Nigeria (0.98%), one from Portugal (0.49%), one from Spain (0.49%), one from Italy (0.49%), one from Sudan (0.49%), one from Ghana (0.49%), one from Malaysia (0.49%). The age range is from 23-69 years old. The gender distribution is 153 female and 51 male respondents. The group includes different occupations: 99 nurses, 52 administrators, 25 physicians and 28 other occupational groups such as pharmacists, lab technicians and radiographers.

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the methodology chosen for this research and has explained the rationale for using quantitative methods for data collection. Quantitative methods are used because the research is investigating voluntary turnover intention, which is a mature theory with well-developed models and constructs that have been studied over time, resulting in a body of work that represent cumulative knowledge

gained. The chapter also covered topics related to research access, fieldwork and the role of the researcher. Additionally the chapter listed the scales used in the questionnaire with their reliability measures. Finally the chapter included a section about the response rate and research respondents. The next chapter presents the research results, along with the statistical analysis of the results.

Chapter Six- Findings

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix
- 6.3 Data analysis
 - 6.3.1 Linearity tests
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- 6.7 Moderation results
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- 6.9 Conclusion

Chapter Six: Findings

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. The chapter begins with a section that covers the descriptive statistics and the correlation matrix. Tests for linearity and multicollinearity are outlined. This is followed by a description of the multivariate analyses that examine how job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment relate to the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates in the UAE. In addition this study investigates how the distal variables such as pay satisfaction, autonomy, promotional opportunities, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange relate to job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and turnover intentions. The results of regression analyses are then presented. Regression results indicate how on-the-job embeddedness, off-the-job embeddedness and shock relate to the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates in the UAE. Finally, the moderating effects of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intention is examined.

6.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix

Table 6.1 shows the means, standard deviations and correlations for all variables in this study. Turnover intention significantly relates to all the proximal variables in the proposed model, namely, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, on-the-job embeddedness, off-the-job embeddedness, shock, and job security.

Turnover intention is negatively and significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = -0.48$, $p < .01$), affective organisational commitment ($r = -0.52$, $p < .01$), on-the-job embeddedness ($r = -0.52$, $p < .01$), off-the-job embeddedness ($r = -0.20$, $p < .01$) and job security ($r = -0.24$, $p < .01$). On the other hand, turnover intention is positively and significantly correlated with shock ($r = 0.50$, $p < .01$).

Job satisfaction is positively and significantly correlated with pay ($r = 0.57$, $p < .01$), autonomy ($r = 0.27$, $p < .01$), promotion opportunity ($r = 0.44$, $p < .01$), distributive justice ($r = 0.56$, $p < .01$), procedural justice ($r = 0.38$, $p < .01$), co-worker support ($r = 0.42$, $p < .01$), workgroup cohesion ($r = 0.35$, $p < .01$), managerial support ($r = 0.41$, $p < .01$) and

leader-member exchange ($r=0.41$, $p<.01$). Only the results of the proposed model paths are presented.

Affective organisational commitment is positively and significantly correlated with promotion opportunity ($r=0.51$, $p<.01$), distributive justice ($r=0.40$, $p<.01$), procedural justice ($r=0.36$, $p<.01$), co-worker support ($r=0.27$, $p<.01$), workgroup cohesion ($r=0.23$, $p<.01$), managerial support ($r=0.42$, $p<.01$) and leader-member exchange ($r=0.33$, $p<.01$). Only the results of the proposed model paths are presented.

Table 6.1: Correlation matrix and descriptive statistics for all variables.

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Turnover Intention	2.8	0.90																
2. Job Satisfaction	3.79	0.69	-.48**															
3. Affective Commitment	3.29	0.68	-.52**	.49**														
4. Pay	3.07	1.05	-.50**	.57**	.30**													
5. Autonomy	3.94	0.69	-.16*	.27**	.31**	.08												
6. Promotion Opportunity	2.85	0.91	-.51**	.44**	.51**	.46**	.14*											
7. Distributive Justice	3.03	0.90	-.53**	.56**	.40**	.70**	.07	.50**										
8. Procedural Justice	3.25	0.82	-.47**	.38**	.36**	.49**	.30**	.57**	.58**									
9. Co-worker Satisfaction	3.80	0.66	-.27**	.42**	.27**	.31**	.06	.29**	.34**	.29**								
10. Workgroup Cohesion	3.65	0.75	-.32**	.35**	.23**	.32**	.16*	.24**	.39**	.47**	.60**							
11. Managerial Support	3.54	0.97	-.42**	.41**	.42**	.47**	.24**	.46**	.58**	.60**	.36**	.52**						
12. LMX	3.55	0.80	-.42**	.41**	.33**	.46**	.38**	.40**	.49**	.50**	.35**	.48**	.74**					
13. On-Job-Embeddedness	3.62	0.54	-.52**	.51**	.53**	.42**	.46**	.55**	.41**	.51**	.43**	.43**	.49**	.49**				
14. Off-job-Embeddedness	3.27	0.78	-.20**	.11	.30**	.14	.13	.28**	.15*	.15*	.15*	.06	.20**	.22**	.47**			
15. Shock	2.87	0.98	.50**	-.28**	-.34**	-.25**	-.03	-.32**	-.37**	-.33**	-.21**	-.29**	-.27**	-.22**	-.31**	.00		
16. Job insecurity	3.48	0.67	-.24**	-.22**	.26**	.11	.18*	.16*	.15*	.20*	.18*	.29*	.19**	.29**	.20**	-.11	-.27**	

* $P < .05$

** $P < .01$

6.3 Data Analyses

Data analyses were conducted using SPSS. Checks for linearity and multicollinearity were performed; details of the tests and their results are listed below:

6.3.1 Linearity Tests

Linearity tests determine whether the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable is linear or not. To test for deviation from linearity SPSS is used. If the value of deviation from linearity is > 0.05 , then the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable is linear. If the value of deviation from linearity is < 0.05 , then the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable is not linear. Using SPSS Analyze option, means are compared, and in the dialog box test for linearity is selected. Linearity tests were used to check the linear relationship between the following variables: turnover intention and each of the proximal determinants (job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, on-the-job embeddedness, off-the-job embeddedness, shock and job security) (Table 1, Appendix A); job satisfaction and each of the distal determinants (pay, autonomy, promotion opportunity, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange) (Table 2, Appendix A); and affective organisational commitment and each of the distal determinants (promotion opportunity, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange) (Table 3, Appendix A).

Based on the ANOVA Output Table, value significance, deviation from linearity of turnover intention and each of the proximal determinants are not below the value of $p < .05$, thus there is no significant nonlinearity, and the linearity assumption is met. Similarly, the F significance values for the nonlinear component of job satisfaction and each of the distal determinants are not below the value of $p < .05$, thus there is no significant nonlinearity, and the linearity assumption is met. Finally, the F significance values for the nonlinear component of affective organisational commitment and each of the distal determinants are not below the value of $p < .05$, except for pay and distributive justice. Therefore the linearity assumption is met in the relationship between affective organisational commitment and promotional

opportunity, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange.

6.3.2 Multicollinearity Tests

Multicollinearity was originally introduced by Frisch (1934), and is defined as a high degree of correlation or linear dependency among some independent variables. It is common in regression models with large number of independent variables, because some of the independent variables may measure the same concept. According to Gujarati (2003, p.342), “multicollinearity refers to the existence of more than one exact relationship, and collinearity refers to the existence of a single linear relationship. But this distinction is rarely maintained in practice, and multicollinearity refers to both”. To assess for multicollinearity, *variance inflation factor* (VIF) and *tolerance* are often used. VIF is defined as: $VIF_k = 1/(1-R^2_k)$, where R^2_k is the R^2 in the regression of x_k on all other independent variables (Greene, 2003, p.57). The inverse of VIF is called tolerance (TOL). The threshold of VIF is <10 (Belsley, 1991; Hair et al., 1995), and of tolerance is >0.1 (Belsley, 1991; Hair et al., 1995).

Multicollinearity is checked using VIF and tolerance when turnover intention is regressed on the proximal determinants: job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, on-the-job embeddedness, off-the-job embeddedness, shock, and job security (all VIF values are <10 , and all tolerance values are >0.1) (table 6.2); when job satisfaction is regressed on the distal determinants: pay, autonomy, promotional opportunity, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange (all VIF values are <10 , and all tolerance values are >0.1) (table 6.3); and when affective organisational commitment is regressed on the distal determinants: promotional opportunity, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange, (all VIF values are <10 , and all tolerance values are >0.1) (table 6.4). Therefore, the results indicate no multicollinearity between the proximal independent variables or distal independent variables in the model.

Table 6.2: Multicollinearity tests for turnover intention and its proximal variables.

	Standardised Coefficient			Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		10.83	.00		
Job Satisfaction	-.20	-3.03	.00	.67	1.50
Commitment	-.21	-3.02	.01	.62	1.61
On-the-job Embeddedness	-.18	-2.31	.02	.51	1.98
Off-the-job Embeddedness	-.02	-.24	.81	.73	1.37
Shock	.33	5.43	.00	.82	1.23

Table 6.3: Multicollinearity tests for job satisfaction and distal variables.

	Standardised Coefficient			Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		2.30	.02		
Pay Satisfaction	.29	3.77	.00	.48	2.10
Autonomy	.26	4.31	.00	.78	1.29
Promotional Opportunity	.15	2.17	.03	.59	1.69
Distributive Justice	.28	3.18	.00	.38	2.6
Procedural Justice	-.13	-1.67	.10	.44	2.27
Co-worker Support	.22	3.22	.00	.61	1.64
Workgroup Cohesion	.03	.34	.74	.50	2.02
Managerial Support	-.02	-.25	.81	.34	2.91
Leader-Member Exchange	-.03	-.35	.73	.37	2.71

Table 6.4: Multicollinearity tests for affective organisational commitment and its distal variables.

	Standardised Coefficient	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		6.15	.00		
Promotional Opportunity	.36	4.35	.00	.59	1.70
Distributive Justice	.11	1.23	.22	.53	1.9
Procedural Justice	-.40	-.44	.66	.47	2.11
Co-worker Support	.08	.95	.34	.60	1.66
Workgroup Cohesion	-.05	-.60	.55	.50	2.00
Managerial Support	.18	1.73	.09	.35	2.85
Leader-Member Exchange	.02	.20	.84	.43	2.31

6.4 Multivariate Analysis – The Effect of Job Satisfaction on Turnover Intention

As discussed in Chapter Three, there are three proposed paths to turnover intention: the job satisfaction model; the embeddedness model and the unfolding model. The job satisfaction model of turnover intention is examined statistically in this section. The multivariate analyses use the following dependent variables: intention to quit; job satisfaction; and affective organisational commitment. The presented results are only for the paths in the proposed model (see Chapter Three). Table 6.5 presents the regression results for job satisfaction. When satisfaction is regressed on the distal determinants (pay satisfaction, autonomy, promotional opportunity, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange) and the control variables (age, gender, marital status, tenure, site, and occupation), five of the variables are statistically significant. Pay satisfaction ($\beta = 0.16$; $p < 0.01$), autonomy ($\beta = 0.21$; $p < 0.01$), promotional opportunity ($\beta = 0.11$; $p < 0.05$), distributive justice ($\beta = 0.18$; $p < 0.05$) and co-worker support ($\beta = 0.25$; $p < 0.01$) positively relate to satisfaction. None of the control variables are significant. The explained variance for satisfaction is 46%.

Table 6.5: Multiple regression results for job satisfaction.

Variable	Unstandardised beta coefficients β	t-value
<i>Control variables</i>		
Age	.00 (.01)	.46
Gender (female)	-.03 (.11)	-.23
Status	.05 (.10)	.56
Tenure	.02 (.01)	1.70
Site (Hospital 1)	-.12 (.10)	-1.19
Occupation	.11 (.15)	.72
(Administrators)		
Occupation (Doctors)	.04 (.18)	.24
Occupation (Nurses)	-.04 (.14)	-.27
<i>Distal determinants</i>		
Pay satisfaction	.16 (.06)**	2.89
Autonomy	.21 (.07)**	2.89
Promotional opportunity	.11 (.06)*	1.97
Distributive justice	.18 (.07)*	2.51
Procedural justice	-.08 (.08)	-1.11
Co-worker support	.25 (.08)**	3.24
Workgroup cohesion	.00 (.08)	.03
Managerial support	.03 (.07)	.41
Leader-member exchange	-.02 (.08)	-.18
<i>F</i>	9.53**	
ΔF	9.53**	
ΔR^2	.51	
Adjusted R^2	.46	
n= 204; unstandardised regression coefficients are reported; standard error in parentheses.		
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test).		

These results support hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 6 and 8, which propose respectively that pay, autonomy, promotional opportunity, distributive justice and co-worker support have positive significant relationship with job satisfaction. On the other hand, the results do not support hypotheses 7, 9, 10 and 11, which correspondingly propose that procedural justice, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange have positive significant relationship with job satisfaction.

Table 6.6 presents the regression results for affective organisational commitment. The presented results are only for the paths in the proposed model (see Chapter Three). When commitment is regressed on the distal determinants (promotional opportunity, distributive justice, procedural justice, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange) and the control variables (age, gender, marital status, tenure, site and occupation), only promotional opportunity is statistically significant

($\beta = 0.25$; $p < 0.01$). Promotional opportunity positively relates to commitment. In addition commitment increases with tenure ($\beta = 0.03$; $p < 0.05$), which is one of the control variables. The explained variance for commitment is 25%.

Affective organisational commitment regression results support hypothesis 5, which proposed that promotional opportunity positively and significantly relates to affective organisational commitment. On the other hand, the results reject hypotheses 6, 7, 9, 10, 11 which respectively propose that distributed justice, procedural justice, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange have positive significant relationship with affective organisational commitment.

Table 6.6: Multiple regression results for affective organisational commitment.

Variable	Unstandardised beta coefficients β	t-value
<i>Control variables</i>		
Age	-.00 (.01)	-.61
Gender (female)	.21 (.13)	1.66
Marital Status	.07 (.11)	.65
Tenure	.03 (.01)*	2.18
Site (Hospital 1)	-.06 (.11)	-.56
Occupation	.33 (.17)	1.92
(Administrators)		
Occupation (Doctors)	.26 (.20)	1.30
Occupation (Nurses)	.04 (.16)	.26
<i>Distal determinants</i>		
Promotional opportunity	.25 (.06)**	3.87
Distributive justice	.06 (.07)	.83
Procedural justice	-.05 (.08)	-.67
Workgroup cohesion	.03 (.08)	.37
Manager's support	.11 (.08)	1.43
Leader-member exchange	.04 (.09)	.51
<i>F</i>	5.04**	
ΔF	5.04**	
ΔR^2	.31	
Adjusted R^2	.25	
n= 204; unstandradised regression coefficients are reported; standard error in parentheses.		
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test).		

Two variables are statistically significant when turnover intention is regressed on the proximal variables in the proposed job satisfaction model (job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment) and the control variables (age, gender, marital

status, tenure, site, and occupation) (table 6.7). The presented results are only for the paths in the proposed model (see Chapter Three). Job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.36$; $p < 0.01$) and affective organisational commitment ($\beta = -0.51$; $p < 0.01$) negatively relate to turnover intention. Additionally, turnover intention increases among nurses ($\beta = 0.47$; $p < 0.05$), a control variable. The explained variance for turnover intention is 38%.

These results support hypotheses 1 and 2, which propose respectively that job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment significantly and negatively relate to turnover intention.

Table 6.7: Multiple regression results – The effect of the job satisfaction model on turnover intention.

Variable	Unstandardised beta coefficients β	t-value
<i>Control Variables</i>		
Age	-.01 (.01)	-.49
Gender (female)	.15 (.15)	1.01
Marital Status	-.12 (.13)	-.99
Tenure	.02 (.01)	1.83
Site (Hospital 1)	.04 (.12)	.30
Occupation	.35 (.20)	1.72
(administrators)		
Occupation (doctors)	.53 (.23)	2.27
Occupation (nurses)	.47 (.18)*	2.67
<i>Proximal determinants</i>		
Job Satisfaction	-.36 (.09)**	-4.02
Affective organisational commitment	-.51 (.09)**	-5.55
<i>F</i>	12.28**	
ΔF	12.28**	
ΔR^2	.42	
Adjusted R^2	.38	
n= 204; unstandardised regression coefficients are reported; standard error in parentheses.		
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test).		

Turnover intention is regressed on job security and kinship responsibility in addition to the proximal variables in the proposed job satisfaction model (job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment) and the control variables (age, gender, marital status, tenure, site and occupation) (table 6.8). The presented results are only for the paths in the proposed model (see Chapter Three). Job security does not significantly relate to turnover intention. There are three variables in the kinship responsibility

scale, two of which are significantly related to turnover intention, namely, the number of dependents living with the expatriate employee is negatively related to turnover intention ($\beta = -0.10$; $p < 0.05$), and living with spouse is also negatively related to turnover intention ($\beta = -0.23$; $p < 0.05$), whereas the third variables in kinship responsibility scale, which is relatives living within 50 miles is not significantly related to turnover intention. Additionally, Job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.36$; $p < 0.01$) and affective organisational commitment ($\beta = -0.51$; $p < 0.01$) are negatively related to turnover intention. Moreover, turnover intention increases among nurses ($\beta = 0.48$; $p < 0.05$), a control variable. The explained variance for turnover intention is 44%.

Table 6.8: Multiple regression results – The effect of the job satisfaction model in addition to job security and kinship responsibility on turnover intention.

Variable	Unstandardised beta coefficients β	t-value
<i>Control Variables</i>		
Age	-.00 (.01)	-.29
Gender (female)	.11 (.15)	.71
Marital Status	.13 (.15)	.87
Tenure	.03 (.01)	2.12
Site (Hospital 1)	.01 (.13)	.044
Occupation	.31 (.20)	1.55
(administrators)		
Occupation (doctors)	.55 (.23)	2.38
Occupation (nurses)	.48 (.19)*	2.72
<i>Proximal determinants</i>		
Job Satisfaction	-.36 (.09)**	-3.91
Affective organisational commitment	-.51 (.10)**	-5.31
Job Security	-.12 (.08)	-1.45
Number of Dependents	-.10 (.05)*	-2.01
Living with Relatives	.03 (.12)	.23
Living with Spouse	-.23 (.12)*	-1.96
<i>F</i>	10.27**	
ΔF	10.27**	
ΔR^2	.49	
Adjusted R^2	.44	
n= 204; unstandardised regression coefficients are reported; standard error in parentheses.		
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test).		

These results partially support Hypotheses 17, which propose that kinship responsibility have a significant negative relationship with turnover intention. On the other hand, Hypothesis 16, which proposes that job security has a negative relationship with turnover intention, is rejected.

Direct effects of proximal and distal variables on turnover intention:

The empirical studies of the causal model of turnover conducted by Price and Mueller (1981) and Kim et al. (1996) examine the direct effects of all variables in the model on turnover intention. Table 6.9 shows the results of regressing turnover intention on the control variables, the proximal variables (job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment) and the distal variables (pay satisfaction, autonomy, promotion opportunity, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange). The occupation control variable significantly relates to turnover intention, as seen in nurses ($\beta = 0.62$; $p < 0.01$), doctors ($\beta = 0.56$; $p < 0.05$) and administrators ($\beta = 0.52$; $p < 0.05$). The variable with the largest direct relationship with turnover intention is affective organisational commitment ($\beta = -0.43$; $p < 0.01$), followed by promotional opportunities ($\beta = -0.18$; $p < 0.01$), and part of the kinship responsibility scale, which is number of dependents ($\beta = -0.11$; $p < 0.05$). The other determinants do not have significant relationship with turnover. Kim et al. (1996) also found that commitment has significant direct relationship with turnover intention. When turnover intention is regressed on all variables in the model, the net effect of job satisfaction is not significant. This result is in accordance with Price and Mueller's findings as they state:

Job satisfaction, one of the variables given considerable attention in the literature as an important determinant and as an intervening variable, was found to have no significant net influence on turnover. It was found, however, to serve as an important mediating variable between the other determinants and turnover—thus its fairly large total effect.... Traditionally, it has been argued that job satisfaction has a direct, though weak, negative impact on turnover. (1981, p.559)

Table 6.9: Direct effects on employee turnover.

Variable	Unstandardised beta coefficients β	t-value
<i>Control variables</i>		
Age	.00 (.01)	.11
Gender (female)	.01 (.15)	.57
Marital status	.11 (.14)	.77
Tenure	.02 (.01)	1.66
Site (Hospital 1)	.02 (.14)	.14
Occupation (administrators)	.52 (.21)*	2.50
Occupation (doctors)	.56 (.24)*	2.39
Occupation (nurses)	.62 (.19)**	3.29
<i>Direct Effects</i>		
Job Satisfaction	-.15 (.11)	-1.41
Affective organisational commitment	-.43 (.10)**	-4.33
Pay Satisfaction	-.11 (.07)	-1.46
Autonomy	-.01 (.10)	-.12
Promotional Opportunity	-.18 (.08)**	-2.13
Distributive Justice	-.08 (.10)	-.83
Procedural Justice	-.18 (.10)	-1.74
Co-worker Support	.05 (.10)	.45
Workgroup Cohesion	-.08 (.10)	-.81
Manager's Support	.11 (.10)	1.13
Leader-Member Exchange	.01 (.11)	.10
Job Security	-.13 (.08)	-1.57
Number of Dependents	-.11 (.05)*	-2.22
Relatives Living Within 50 Miles	.03 (.12)	.25
Living with Spouse	-.24 (.12)	-1.98
<i>F</i>	8.28**	
ΔF	8.28**	
ΔR^2	.59	
Adjusted R^2	.52	

n= 204; unstandardised regression coefficients are reported; standard error in parentheses.
 * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test).

6.5 Hierarchical Regression Analysis – The Effects of Embeddedness and Shock on Turnover Intention

The effects of embeddedness and shock on turnover intention are tested using hierarchical regressions. Controls are entered in the first step and include: age, gender, marital status, tenure, site and occupation. In the second step, job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment are added. On-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness are added in the third step. Finally, in the fourth step, shock is

added. Table 6.10 presents the relationship of on-the-job embeddedness, off-the-job embeddedness, and shock with turnover intention, over and beyond the effects of job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment on turnover intention.

The results indicate that on-the-job embeddedness relates to turnover intention over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. On-the-job embeddedness negatively and significantly relates to turnover intention ($\beta = -0.38$; $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, off-the-job embeddedness does not have a significant relationship with on turnover intention. Additionally, shock relates to turnover intention over and beyond satisfaction, commitment and embeddedness. Shock significantly and positively relates to turnover intention ($\beta = 0.29$; $p < 0.01$). The explained variance for turnover intention is 49%.

These results support hypothesis 12, which predicts that on-the-job embeddedness has a negative, significant relationship with turnover intention. Hypothesis 14, which proposes that shock has a positive, significant relationship with turnover intention, is also supported. Nevertheless, the results do not support hypothesis 13, which predicts that turnover intention relates to off-the-job embeddedness.

Table 6.10: Multiple regression results – The effects of the job satisfaction model, the embeddedness model, and shock on turnover intention.

Variable	Unstandardised beta coefficients β	t-value
<i>Control variables</i>		
Age	-.01 (.01)	-.67
Gender (female)	.06 (.18)	.31
Marital Status	-.24 (.15)	-1.54
Tenure	.02 (.02)	1.50
Site (Hospital 1)	.18 (.15)	1.20
Occupation (administrators)	.02 (.24)	.09
Occupation (doctors)	.46 (.28)	1.63
Occupation (nurses)	.55 (.22)*	2.53
<i>F</i>	2.59*	
ΔF	2.59*	
ΔR^2	.11	
Adjusted R^2	.07	
<i>Job Satisfaction Model</i>		
Job Satisfaction	-.34 (.09)**	-3.77
Affective organisational commitment	-.52 (.09)**	-5.52
<i>F</i>	11.66**	
ΔF	42.76**	
ΔR^2	.31	
Adjusted R^2	.38	
<i>Embeddedness Model</i>		
On-the-job Embeddedness	-.38 (.14)**	-2.70
Off-the-job Embeddedness	.09 (.09)	1.01
<i>F</i>	10.64**	
ΔF	3.65*	
ΔR^2	.03	
Adjusted R^2	.40	
<i>Shock</i>		
Shock	.29 (.06)**	5.34
<i>F</i>	13.68**	
ΔF	28.49**	
ΔR^2	.08	
Adjusted R^2	.49	
n= 204; unstandradised regression coefficients are reported; standard error in parentheses.		
* p < .05; ** p < .01 (two-tailed test).		

6.6 Moderation Results

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted (table 6.11) to test hypothesis 15, which proposes that off-the-job embeddedness moderates the relationship between shock and the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. In the first step, the control variables (age, gender, marital status, tenure, site and occupation) are included, in addition to controlling for job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. The paths tested are the same paths proposed in chapter three. Job security is also controlled for because a number of studies have referred to the importance of job security in expatriate employees retention in the UAE (E.g. Alserhan et al., 2009; Goodwin & Preiss, 2010; Shaw et al., 2003). This test is examining the moderating effect of the off-the-job embeddedness, or community embeddedness, since job insecurity is reported in previous literature as one of the characteristics of the work environment in the UAE, it is imperative to control for job security when examining the moderating effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates in the UAE. The control variables in addition to job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and shock account for a significant amount of the variance in turnover intention, $R^2 = 0.39$. In the second step, on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness are added. After controlling for job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and job security embeddedness account for a significant percentage of the variance, $R^2 = 0.41$.

In the third step, shock is included. After controlling for job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, job security, on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness, shock accounts for a significant amount of the variance in turnover intention, $R^2 = 0.54$. To avoid high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the variables were centred and an interaction term between shock and off-the-job embeddedness is created (Aiken & West, 1991).

The interaction term between shock and off-the-job embeddedness was added to the regression model and it accounts for a significant proportion of the variance of turnover intention, $R^2 = 0.56$. It adds significantly to explain the variance, $\Delta R^2 = 0.02$. However, hypothesis 15 is not supported; off-the-job embeddedness positively moderated the relationship between shock and turnover intention. That is, the

interaction of shock and high off-the job embeddedness is associated with higher turnover intention (graph 6.1).

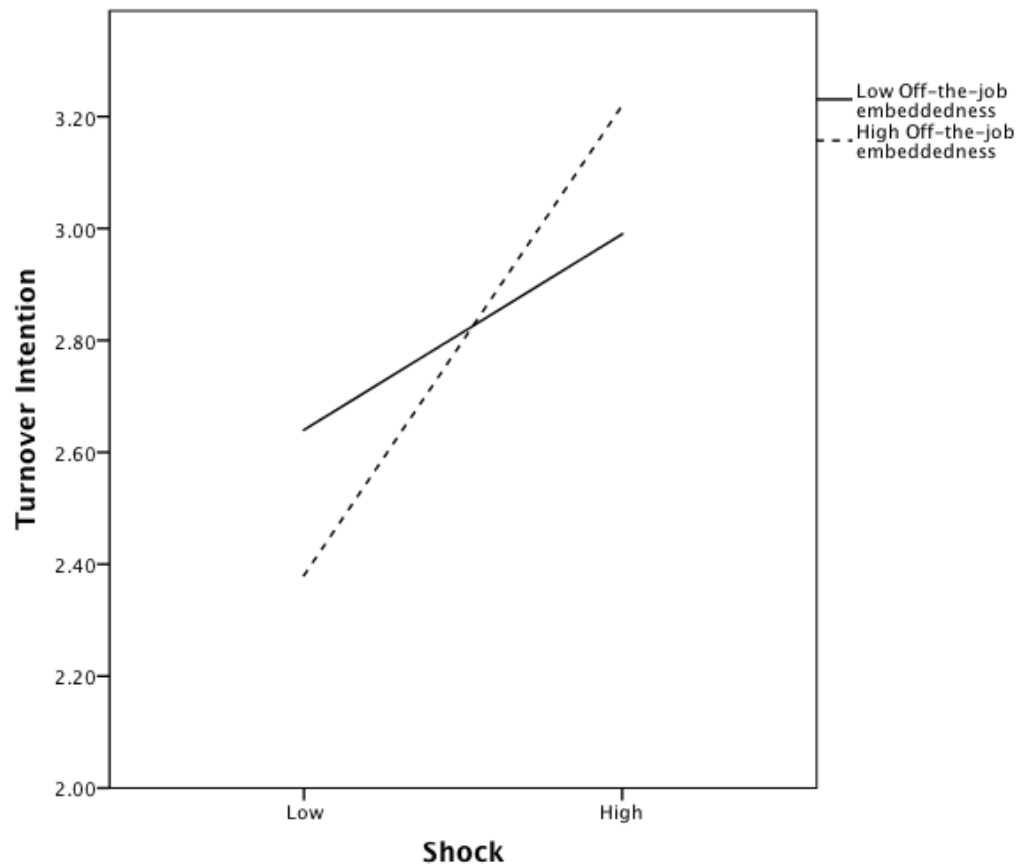
Table 6.11 Hierarchical regression results - moderation effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intention

Variables	Turnover Intention							
	Step 1	t-value	Step 2	t-value	Step 3	t-value	Step 4	t-value
	Unstandardised		Unstandardised		Unstandardised		Unstandardised	
	beta coefficients		beta coefficients		beta coefficients		beta coefficients	
	β		β		β		β	
<i>Controls</i>								
Age	-.01 (.01)	-.97	-.01 (.01)	-.76	-.00 (.01)	-.17	-.00 (.01)	-.34
Gender (female)	.16 (.15)	1.10	.10 (.15)	.66	.08 (.14)	.56	.06 (.14)	.44
Marital Status	-.10 (.13)	-.78	-.06 (.13)	-.51	-.08 (.12)	-.71	-.07 (.12)	-.60
Tenure	.03 (.01)	2.08	.03 (.01)	1.86	.02 (.01)	1.24	.02 (.01)	1.31
Site (Hospital 1)	.03 (.13)	1.07	-.02 (.12)	-.12	.09 (.12)	.78	.10 (.11)	.86
Occupation (administrators)	.34 (.20)	.23	.38 (.20)	1.90	.35 (.18)	1.89	.33 (.18)	1.83
Occupation (doctors)	.54 (.23)*	1.67	.53 (.23)*	2.33	.42 (.21)	1.96	.43 (.21)*	2.03
Occupation (nurses)	.47 (.18)**	2.30	.48 (.18)**	2.75	.42 (.16)*	2.61	.44 (.16)**	2.78
Job Satisfaction	-.34 (.09)**	-3.70	-.26 (.10)**	-2.66	-.21 (.10)*	-2.37	-.22 (.09)*	-2.45
Affective organisational commitment	-.49 (.10)**	-5.01	-.41 (.10)**	-4.02	-.35 (.10)**	-3.69	-.33 (.10)**	-3.46
Job Security	-.15 (.08)	-1.76	-.12 (.08)	-1.49	-.05 (.08)	-.66	-.05 (.08)	-.62
On-the-job Embeddedness			-.41 (.15)**	-2.81	-.29 (.14)*	-2.15	-.25 (.14)*	-1.88
Off-the-job Embeddedness			.08 (.09)	.872	.04 (.08)	.51	-.01 (.08)	-.10
Shock					.30 (.06)**	5.32	.29 (.06)**	5.34
Interaction Shock x Off-the-Job Embeddedness							.17 (.07)*	2.48
<i>F</i>	10.89**		10.18**		13.13**		13.06**	
ΔF	10.89**		4.02*		28.33**		6.14*	
ΔR^2	.43		.46		.54		.56	
Adjusted R^2	.43		.03		.08		.02	

n= 204; unstandradised regression coefficients are reported; standard error in parentheses.

* p < .05; ** p < .01 (two-tailed test).

Graph 6.1: Moderation effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intention



Shock has a positive, significant relationship with turnover intention ($\beta = 0.30$; $p < 0.01$) (See tables 6.11 and graph 6.1). This relationship increases with high values of off-the-job embeddedness ($\beta = 0.43$; $p < 0.01$), and is less marked with low values of off the job embeddedness (0.17 ; $p < 0.05$). Simple slope regression analyses show that for low values of off-the-job embeddedness the relationship of shock and turnover intention is positive and significant ($\beta = 0.17$; $t=2.2$; $p < 0.05$). However, for high values of off-the-job embeddedness the relationship of shock and turnover intention is stronger ($\beta = 0.43$; $t=5.1$; $p < 0.01$).

6.7 Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using AMOS software to assess the scales of distributive justice and procedural justice and the scales of on- and off-the-job embeddedness.

To evaluate the model fit in confirmatory factor analysis the Chi-Square χ^2 test (Jöreskog, 1969) was used. The χ^2 test is widely recognized to be problematic as it is sensitive to sample size, and it becomes more difficult to retain the null as the number of cases increases. In reaction to this sample size sensitivity problem, a variety of alternative goodness-of-fit indices have been developed (Lei & Wu, 2007). There are two classes of alternative fit indices, incremental and absolute (Lei & Wu, 2007). “Incremental fit indices measure the increase in fit relative to a baseline model” (Lei & Wu, 2007, p. 37). According to Lei and Wu (2007) examples of incremental fit indices are: normed fit index *NFI* (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), Tucker-Lewis index *TLI* (Tucker & Lewis, 1973), relative noncentrality index *RNI* (McDonald & Marsh, 1990), and comparative fit index *CFI* (Bentler, 1989; 1990). The acceptance criteria of incremental fit indices are that higher values of incremental fit indices indicate larger improvement over the baseline model in fit. “Values in the .90s or more recently $\geq .95$ are generally accepted as indications of good fit.” (Lei & Wu, 2007, p. 37).

One the other hand, “absolute fit indices measure the extent to which the specified model of interest reproduces the sample covariance matrix” (Lei & Wu, 2007, p. 37). According to Lei and Wu (2007) Examples of absolute fit indices include goodness-of-fit index *GFI* and adjusted GFI *AGFI*, in addition to standardized root mean square residual *SRMR* (Bentler, 1995), and the *RMSEA* (Steiger & Lind, 1980). The evaluation of absolute fit indices depend on the argument that higher values of GFI and AGFI as well as lower values of SRMR and RMSEA indicate better model-data fit.

According to Lei and Wu (2007) it is largely recommended to consider various indices simultaneously when evaluating overall model fit. In this research Hu and Bentler (1999) proposition is applied, as they propose a 2-index strategy that involves

reporting SRMR in addition to one of the fit indices such as RNI, CFI, or RMSEA. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggest a criteria to indicate a good model-data fit using those indices: $CFI \geq .95$, $SRMR \leq .08$, and $RMSEA \leq .06$. These criteria are used to evaluate model fit in this research.

To begin with, CFA is conducted for the scales of distributive and procedural justice. One- and two-factor CFA with seven observed indicators are performed. The analyses showed an acceptable fit for the two-factor model: $\chi^2 (13) = 29.23$, $p < .01$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .98; root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .08; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .038. The two-factor model provided a better fit to the data than the one-factor model $\chi^2 (14) = 134.43$, $p < .001$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .85; root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .21; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .088. The difference in the fit of the two models is statistically significant: $\Delta\chi^2 (1) = 105.2$, $p < .001$. Detailed tables of CFA tests are listed in Appendix IV.

CFA is also conducted for the scales of on- and off-the-job embeddedness. One- and two-factor CFA with eighteen observed indicators are performed. The analyses showed a better fit for the two-factor model: $\chi^2 (134) = 670.62$, $p < .001$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .67; root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .14; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .10. The two-factor model provided a better fit to the data than the one-factor model $\chi^2 (135) = 851.82$, $p < .001$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .56; root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .16; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .11. The difference in the fit of the two models is statistically significant: $\Delta\chi^2 (1) = 181.2$, $p < .001$.

Six-factor CFA is performed for the on- and off-the-job embeddedness scales, as each of the on- and off-the-job embeddedness scales is theoretically divided to three sub-scales measuring fit, links, and sacrifice (Mitchell et al., 2001). The results show better fit than the two-factor model: $\chi^2 (120) = 307.15$, $p < .001$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .89; root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .088; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .069. Detailed tables of CFA tests are listed in Appendix IV.

6.8 Conclusion

This chapter presents the results of data analyses. The statistical analyses were performed using SPSS. The key analyses include descriptive statistics, correlations, and regressions. A significant number of the thesis hypotheses are supported, although a number of hypotheses are rejected. The next chapter explains the significance of these results in greater detail.

Chapter Seven- Discussion

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Chapter Seven: Discussion

7.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter the findings of the research hypotheses regarding the determinants of self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions were presented. This chapter recapitulates the purpose of the thesis, before describing its contributions to the existing literature on employee turnover. The practical implications of this study are then discussed, followed by consideration of the limitations of the research. Finally, directions for future research in employee turnover of self-initiated expatriates are presented.

7.2 Purpose of this thesis

The purpose of this thesis is to provide a model of self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions based on: job satisfaction models of turnover (E.g. Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986, Price, 2001); the embeddedness model (Mitchell et al., 2001); and the unfolding model (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). This thesis contributes to the current literature by studying the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, a distinct expatriate population (Tharenou, 2015; Bozionelos, 2009; Inkson, Arthur, Pringle, & Barry, 1997) who are different from the employees that are normally studied in turnover research. Self-initiated expatriates are professionals who choose to expatriate (Tharenou, 2015; Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004). They relocate to a country of their choice to seek a job, often with no definite time frame in mind (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Jokinen, Brewster, & Suutari, 2008; Saxenian, 2005). According to Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn (2013), we still do not have a clear understanding of what it means to engage in self-initiated expatriation. Furthermore the potential connections between existing career and management theories and self-initiated expatriates experience are poorly understood, so are the implications of self-initiated expatriates within the organizational context (Doherty et al., 2013). Therefore connecting self-initiated expatriates experience to theories of embeddedness and employee turnover makes a theoretical contribution to the field. There is a need to examine the turnover intentions of this group, not only because of their distinctiveness, but also because of their population size. Few studies have examined the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. Bozionelos (2009)

investigated a number of factors that may influence job satisfaction and turnover intentions among self-initiated expatriates in Saudi Arabia; however he did not examine the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates using a well-established turnover model that includes several antecedents of turnover intention. Additionally, in Bozionelos' (2009) study, determinants that have previously been established to affect turnover intentions, such as pay, autonomy, promotion, distributive justice and affective organisational commitment have not been considered. Finally, although Bozionelos (2009) studied both job satisfaction and the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, he did not examine the relationship between them.

Another key study in the field is Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) research that sought to explain how and why professional self-initiated expatriates repatriate. They found that host country pull (embeddedness), home country pull and shock explained the intention to repatriate, which led to job search and then actual repatriation. However their sample was composed of only Australian expatriates, and their study focused specifically on the repatriation of self-initiated expatriates, and not on the turnover and turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. The difference between the two is that self-initiated expatriates may quit a job in the host country and seek another job in the host country, or go to another host country, rather than simply return to their home country.

This thesis seeks to identify the determinants of the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, due to the growing number of self-initiated expatriates worldwide; the gap in knowledge regarding self-initiated expatriate turnover; and the differences between self-initiated expatriates and other employees in terms of ease of mobility and motivations to stay in or quit a job.

The first major contribution of this thesis to the employee turnover literature is proposing a model for self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions. The proposed model is based on applying well established turnover models to examine the relationship of multiple antecedents with self-initiated expatriates' turnover intentions, such as: job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, pay, autonomy, promotion, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, work-group cohesion, managerial support, leader-member exchange, job security and

kinship responsibility. In addition to, investigating the relationship of job embeddedness and shock with self-initiated expatriates turnover intentions. Furthermore, this thesis contributes to the literature on self-initiated expatriates by examining the turnover intentions of a diverse group of expatriates comprising 23 different nationalities working in the UAE.

The second major contribution of this thesis is to examine the validity and appropriateness of job satisfaction models of turnover, embeddedness models of turnover and unfolding model of turnover among self-initiated expatriates in a non-western context, the UAE. Holtom et al. (2008, p. 256) identify international research on employee turnover as one of; “the most promising directions for future research.” They conclude that; “The turnover field would benefit greatly from expanding to an international level by looking at the generalizability of the existing turnover models to other cultures” (Holtom et al., 2008, p. 258).

The relationship of job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment with turnover intentions are investigated using the casual model of turnover; then the relationship of on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness with turnover intentions are examined, after controlling for job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment; finally the relationship of shock with turnover intentions is considered, after controlling for job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, and job embeddedness.

This thesis highlights the relationship of shock, a jarring event, with the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. The role of shock may be more important for expatriates than nationals. A shock may jolt an expatriate into evaluating whether life in the host country is meeting his/her values, plans and goals (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Shocks may be positive or negative. Positive shocks, like a wedding in the home country, force the expatriate to evaluate life abroad and think about leaving; and negative shocks, such as issues with elderly parents, may trigger thoughts of quitting (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

The concept of shock has the potential to link the job embeddedness model to the unfolding model. Mitchell et al. (2001) suggest using both the unfolding model and

job embeddedness to better understand voluntary turnover. According to Mitchell et al. (2001), low levels of embeddedness may make employees susceptible to shocks if they occur. When employees fit well with the organisation, it will take a stronger shock to cause them to consider quitting (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). Holtom and Inderrieden (2006, p.441) state, "One way job embeddedness may buffer the effect of shock is by influencing their perception of jarring events". Holtom et al. (2008) suggest that the future theoretical development of the job embeddedness model would benefit greatly from exploration of the likely moderators of this model. Thus, an additional contribution this thesis makes to the employee turnover literature is to link the job embeddedness model of turnover to the unfolding model of turnover by examining the moderating effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intentions among self-initiated expatriates.

The research findings broadly support the proposed hypotheses (see Chapter Three). The results indicate the applicability of a well-established turnover model, namely the causal model, on self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions. The results also validate the applicability of the job embeddedness model, through the significant negative relationship on-the-job embeddedness has with the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. Finally, this thesis contributes to the literature on expatriates and voluntary turnover by identifying the effect of host country embeddedness, or off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intentions. Off-the-job embeddedness moderates the relationship between shock and the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates in such a way that the interaction of shock and high off-the job embeddedness is associated with higher turnover intentions.

7.2.1 The growing number of expatriates worldwide

A research report published by the market research and financial consultancy company Finaccord (2014), found that the total number of expatriates worldwide is at a record level and is expected to grow over the next few years. The *"Global Expatriates: Size, Segmentation and Forecast for the Worldwide Market"* report indicates that there are around 50.5 million expats worldwide, and this number is expected to increase to 56.8 by 2017. According to the report, the majority of expatriates are individual workers, also called, self-initiated expatriates, making up

73.6 % of expatriates. In order to fully describe this market, Finaccord has developed the first ever standardised and comprehensive analysis of expatriates worldwide, providing a consistent segmentation of expatriates. According to this analysis:

The majority of expatriates in 2013 were classifiable as individual workers (73.6%) followed by students (8.8%), retired expatriates (3.7%) and corporate transferees (1.0%), with the balance of other expatriates (defined as non-employed spouses and children) making up the residual 12.8% (Finaccord, 2014).

The report includes 30 destination countries for expatriates in the investigation and found that, in 2013, Saudi Arabia hosted the largest number of expatriates in the world, followed by the UAE and the US. The report also includes 25 expatriate countries of origin and indicates that India generated the largest group of expatriates abroad in 2013, followed by China and the UK.

The percentage of expatriates in the worldwide population is expected to reach 0.77% by 2017, according to Finaccord (2014), “the percentage of the total worldwide population that was composed of expatriates increased from around 0.68% in 2009 to 0.72% in 2013 and is forecast to rise to 0.77% by 2017.” The large and rapidly increasing number of expatriates, and the large percentage of self-initiated expatriates within this, creates a need for studying the turnover intention of this growing segment of the workforce. Determining the reasons behind the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates will certainly help organisations and governments worldwide to further understand and retain this group of employees. Hence, this research adds to the literature of employee turnover by investigating the antecedents of turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates using established turnover models such as Price and Mueller’s (1981; 1986) causal model of turnover; Mitchell et al.’s (2001) embeddedness model, and Lee and Mitchell’s (1994) unfolding model.

One of the main contributions of this thesis is investigating the turnover intention of a growing segment of the workforce, namely, self-initiated expatriates, in a country that hosts the second largest number of expatriates worldwide, the UAE (*Global Expatriates: Size, Segmentation and Forecast for the Worldwide Market*, 2014).

According to population estimates, in 2015 expatriates made up around 88.68% of the UAE population (Snoj, 2015).

7.2.2 Gaps in the literature of self-initiated expatriates turnover research

Despite the scholarly attention self-initiated expatriates have received recently, there is no standard definition of the term “self-initiated expatriate” (Vaiman, Haslberger & Vance, 2015). This emerging field remains both under-theorised and under-researched (Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013). Most research on the turnover of self-initiated expatriates has focused on trying to reverse the “brain drain” and to encourage repatriation (Hugo et. al., 2003). The findings have been limited because most studies rely on frequency statistics (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). According to Bozionelos (2009), although self-initiated expatriates have been acknowledged as a distinct expatriate population, as is the norm with all newly acknowledged social phenomenon, most research on this group is exploratory and descriptive (e.g. Inkson & Myers, 2003; Richardson & McKenna, 2002; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Vance, 2005). Deductive research that tests relationships between factors influencing expatriates turnover is lacking (Bozionelos, 2009). According to Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn (2013, p. 7) much of the extant research on self-initiated expatriates draws on specific geographic locations focusing mostly on the experience of self-initiated expatriates from developed countries (e.g. Inkson & Myers, 2003; Richardson & Mallon, 2005), with few exceptions (e.g. Agullo and Egawa, 2009; Al Ariss and Syed, 2011). In addition research has concentrated on specific professions such as academia (e.g. Richardson, 2009) and nursing (e.g. Bozionelos, 2009). There is still a dearth of research on the individual issues faced by self-initiated expatriates about how to establish themselves in the host country without company support (Mo & Yong, 2015, p. 37).

Most research on the turnover of self-initiated expatriates, to date, is research on the repatriation of self-initiated expatriates (e.g. Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) or intention to repatriate (e.g. Bozionelos, 2009). According to Tharenou (2015, p. 159) to improve the rigor of self-initiated expatriates studies;

“Studies need to be designed with a strong conceptual basis and specific propositions/hypotheses to provide clear ‘dependent’ variables and guide development of a research design that offers the best fit.”

This research provides a clear dependent variable, which is turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates. This variable gives information about the self-initiated expatriate intent to quit his/her current organisation, but does not give any information about post-turnover destinations, which may be finding another job in the host country, expatriating to another host country, or repatriation. Bergman et al. (2012) strongly urge researchers not to over interpret their data on turnover intention. In this research, the dependent variable is turnover intention, not intention to repatriate, and turnover intention data is not over interpreted to intention to repatriate. With that being clarified, very few studies have examined the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates based on job satisfaction theories of employee turnover, the embeddedness theory of employee turnover and the unfolding theory of employee turnover.

7.2.3 Difference of self-initiated expatriates

Self-initiated expatriates themselves choose to expatriate and they decide the duration of their expatriation (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). The main reasons for self-initiated expatriation are: (1) to seek employment opportunities in the host country; (2) to live in the host country, to experience the host country culture, and to learn the language; (3) to seek adventure and to see the world (Doherty et al., 2008; Napier & Taylor, 2002; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

Self-initiated expatriates are embedded in host countries due to their careers, financial and professional opportunities, and conditions offered (Fontes, 2007; Hugo et al., 2003; Inkson et al., 2004). Because self-initiated expatriates choose to live in a foreign country, they interact more with the locals (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) and, as a result, report a high ability to adapt to the host country, have higher cultural adjustment, and have confidence in their capability to work and live abroad (Doherty et al., 2008; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). Finally, the most frequently cited reasons self-initiated expatriates intend to return to their home country or have returned are family in the home country and home country lifestyle (Barrett & O’Connell, 2001; Hugo et al., 2003; Inkson et al., 2004; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

To summarise, there are certain characteristics of self-initiated expatriates that set them apart from national employees and company assigned expatriates: First, they have the freedom, ability and desire to relocate to seek good job opportunities. According to the *Global Expatriates: Size, Segmentation and Forecast for the Worldwide Market* (2014) report, in 2013 Saudi Arabia hosted the largest number of expatriates, followed by the UAE and the US. What these three countries have in common is attractive job opportunities. Consequently, it is logical to conclude that attractive job opportunities are one of the main reasons that self-initiated expatriates choose to expatriate, relocate, and/ or change jobs in the same host country. Therefore, determinants such as job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, and job characteristics (see for example: pay, promotional opportunities, autonomy and distributive justice) are likely to have significant effect on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates.

The second characteristic of self-initiated expatriates is their ability to adapt to the host country and their confidence in their capability to work and live abroad. This confidence increases their mobility because they are willing to relocate easily; they have a strong ability for cultural adjustment, and are not tied or attached to a certain country or community. The implication of this characteristic on employee turnover research is represented by the effect of on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. Studies have shown the negative effect of on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness on employee turnover intentions and actual employee turnover (e.g. Mitchell et al., 2001). However, the effect of embeddedness on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates has not been thoroughly examined. In this thesis, both on-and off- the job embeddedness are proposed to negatively influence the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, after controlling for job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment.

Finally, the third characteristic of self-initiated expatriates is having family and friends in their home country that may influence them to quit their job in the host country, what Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) refer to as home country pull factors. Having family and friends in the home country may result in jarring events that initiate thoughts of quitting, namely, shocks. The effect of shock on turnover intention

and actual turnover is widely supported (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Nevertheless, the effect of shock on self-initiated expatriates has not been sufficiently examined. In this thesis, shock is proposed to have a positive significant relationship with the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, even after controlling for job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and embeddedness.

7.3 Background of employee turnover literature

This section presents an outline of the key models in the employee turnover literature, in addition to these studies that have included the main concepts from these models to examine the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. This section also explains how this thesis seeks to contribute to employee turnover models through examination of their validity and generalisability to self-initiated expatriates.

7.3.1 Job satisfaction models

Studying the effect of job satisfaction on employee turnover originated with March and Simon's (1958) theory of organisational equilibrium. They propose two factors that determine employee turnover, namely, the perceived desirability of movement and the perceived ease of movement; these concepts are typically labelled today as job satisfaction and perceived alternatives (Holtom et al., 2008; Trevor, 2001). Many models have been proposed to explain employee turnover in terms of job satisfaction and perceived alternatives (see for example: Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986, Steers & Mowday, 1981). According to Hom and Griffeth (1995) Price and Mueller's (1981; 1986) causal model is one of three major explanations of turnover in the literature, along with Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) and Mobley (1982). The causal model presents a major shift in employee turnover literature by moving the focus of analysis to the causes of job satisfaction (Holtom et al., 2008). Price and Mueller's causal model has gone through five phases of development (Price, 2004), during which many changes have been introduced to the model based on empirical findings and turnover literature. The causal model has been empirically tested on different samples including: nurses in private hospitals (Price & Mueller, 1981); all employees in private hospitals (Price & Mueller, 1986); all employees in a government hospital (Agho, Mueller & Price, 1993); and Air Force physicians (Kim, Price, Mueller & Watson 1996). In most of these studies, voluntary turnover was the dependent variable except for Kim et al.'s (1996) study, where intent

to stay was the dependent variable. Studying actual turnover among Air Force physicians was not possible because they owed the Air Force a set period of service (Kim et al., 1996).

Antecedents of turnover intention and voluntary turnover have been added or discarded from the causal model according to empirical findings and new related literature (Price, 2004). The result is a “comprehensive structural model, which identified the antecedents of job satisfaction and intent to leave” (Holtom et al., 2008, p. 239).

Very few studies have examined the job satisfaction and turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriate. Bozionelos (2009) examined a number of factors influencing job satisfaction and turnover intentions among self-initiated expatriates in Saudi Arabia, namely: whether the expatriate had attended cross-cultural training before leaving the home country; protégé experience (being involved in a relationship with a mentor); peer support; and whether the home and host country belonged to different cultural clusters. Bozionelos (2009) found a relationship between protégé experience (being involved in a relationship with a mentor) and each of job satisfaction and turnover intention. Peer support was related only to job satisfaction. Additionally Bozionelos (2009) found no relationship between cross-cultural training and each of job satisfaction and turnover intention. Although Bozionelos (2009) has examined the job satisfaction and turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates, in fact, only four factors affecting turnover intention were studied, and the study did not consider the applicability of a well-established turnover model on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates.

This thesis has extended the work on self-initiated expatriate turnover by exploring the effects of job satisfaction models, particularly the causal model of turnover (Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986), on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates through investigation of the effects of the attitudinal variables: job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, in addition to a number of distal variables, namely, pay satisfaction, autonomy, promotional opportunities, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange, on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates.

7.3.2 Embeddedness models

Job embeddedness is a key factor in explaining why people stay in their jobs (Mitchell et al., 2001). Mitchell et al. (2001) propose three components of embeddedness both on and off the job, namely: links, which are formal or informal connections between a person and other people or institutions; fit, which is an employee's perceptions of compatibility or comfort with an organisation and with a community; and sacrifices, which are the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that employees say they would have to sacrifice if they quit their job (Mitchell et al., 2001). Mitchell et al. (2001) empirically tested the embeddedness model of employee turnover in a regional grocery store chain and a community-based hospital and found that job embeddedness predicts turnover over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment.

Much of the current research on voluntary turnover is grounded in March and Simon's (1958) organisational equilibrium model which proposes that employee turnover can be predicted by the perceived desirability of movement and perceived ease of movement. The perceived desirability of movement is represented by job satisfaction and affective commitment, whereas the perceived ease of movement is represented by perceived job alternatives (Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee & Mitchell, 2012). By revealing that embeddedness predicts turnover over and beyond job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, and job alternatives, Mitchell et al.'s (2001) job embeddedness model complements and extends the understanding of the antecedents of employee turnover.

Lee and colleagues (2004) expand the understanding of job embeddedness by investigating the different effects of on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness on different organisational outcomes. They found that off-the-job embeddedness predicts turnover and absences, whereas on-the-job embeddedness does not. On the other hand, on-the-job embeddedness predicts job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour, whereas off-the-job embeddedness does not. Additionally Lee et al. (2004) indicate that on-the-job embeddedness has significant moderating effects on the positive effect of volitional absences on turnover and on the negative effect of job performance on turnover. Contrary to Lee et al.'s (2004)

findings, Mallol, Holtom and Lee (2007) found that off-the-job embeddedness does not predict turnover, whereas on-the-job embeddedness does.

Several studies validate the effect of job embeddedness on employee turnover, for example, Allen (2006) examined the effect of organisational socialisation tactics on newcomers' embeddedness and turnover and found that on-the-job embeddedness is negatively related to turnover and mediates the relationship between certain socializations tactics and turnover. Job embeddedness was also found to predict the turnover of healthcare professionals over and beyond job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and job alternatives (Holtom & O'Neill, 2004). Crossley et al. (2007) proposed a new measure to test job embeddedness and verified the effect of job embeddedness on voluntary turnover. Moreover they found that job embeddedness interacts with job satisfaction to predict turnover. Finally, Ramesh and Gelfand (2010) examined the generalisability of job embeddedness in a non-western collectivistic culture and found that job embeddedness predicts turnover intention in India, after controlling for job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and job alternatives.

In their meta analysis of job embeddedness research, which represents the first quantitative review of the relationship between job embeddedness and turnover, Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee and Mitchell (2012) identified that one prominent issue in studying the effect of job embeddedness on employee turnover is the consistency regarding the unique effects of the two dimensions of job embeddedness, namely, on- and off-the-job embeddedness. For example Lee et al. (2004) found that off-the-job embeddedness is negatively related to voluntary turnover; whereas Mallol, Holtom and Lee (2007) found that on-the-job embeddedness is negatively related to voluntary turnover. According to Jiang et al. (2012, p. 1077): "These inconsistent findings suggest a more complex analysis of the job embeddedness– employee turnover relationship is warranted to assist practitioners in better managing turnover." This thesis contributes to the literature by validating the effect of on-the-job embeddedness on turnover intentions. The findings of this thesis indicate that on-the-job embeddedness predicts the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates above and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, whereas off-the-job embeddedness does not.

Jiang et al. (2012) state that the evidence of job embeddedness as a significant antecedent of turnover is increasingly established in the literature, however researchers are yet to understand the situations and contextual factors where the effects of job embeddedness on turnover are augmented or attenuated. According to Jiang et al. (2012, p.1084), job embeddedness explains more variance in turnover intentions and actual turnover in public organisations: “Results of this nature should stimulate further exploration of the contextual factors that influence when, and to what extent, job embeddedness relates to employee turnover.”

Mitchell et al. (2001) propose that the relationship between job embeddedness and turnover outcomes may vary by sample or context attributes. According to Jiang et al. (2012), previous research has suggested that contextual factors can be divided into three levels: national, organisational and individual (Holtom et al., 2008). At the national level, research on the effect of job embeddedness on employee turnover has been conducted in different countries (for example, China, Europe, India, the United States), and across different national cultures (such as, Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). At the organisational level, research indicates that employees in public organisations place greater emphasis on job embeddedness (Jiang et al., 2012). At the individual level, gender has been the only variable examined which has been shown to affect the job embeddedness-employee turnover relationship, with women being more affected by job embeddedness than men (Jiang et al., 2012).

The first study to examine the effect of embeddedness on self-initiated expatriates is Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) research that sought to explain why and how professional self-initiated expatriates repatriate. They measured host country pull and push, home country pull, shocks and the intention to repatriate of 546 Australians and, after one year, they measured their home country job search and whether they had repatriated or not. They found that host country pull (embeddedness), home country pull and shock explained the intention to repatriate, which led to job search and then actual repatriation. Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) acknowledge the limitations of their study, which include concerns about the generalisability of the research results because their sample only included Australian expatriates. They focused their research on repatriation, and did not consider the case of changing jobs in the host

country. This thesis has extended such work on self-initiated expatriate turnover by exploring the relationship of on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness with the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates after controlling for job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Additionally, it is important to note that while Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) have examined the relationship of embeddedness with the repatriation of self-initiated expatriates, this research examines the relationship of embeddedness with the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates. As noted earlier, turnover intention only gives information about the intent to leave the current organisation, and does not give any information about post-turnover destinations such as repatriation, finding another job in the host country or expatriating at another host country.

7.3.3 Unfolding model

In their unfolding model of turnover, Lee and Mitchell (1994) suggest five paths that employees might follow prior to turnover; these paths unfold over time due to many reasons over and beyond job satisfaction. Lee and Mitchell (1994) introduce new concepts to the literature of employee turnover, such as shock. A shock is a specific event that initiates thoughts of quitting. A shock is a very distinguishable event that jars employees toward thoughtful judgments about their job and perhaps to voluntarily quit their job (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Shocks may be expected or unexpected; positive, negative, or neutral events that promote thought about a person's job (Lee and Mitchell, 1994). A shock could be internal or external to the person who experiences it (Lee et al., 1999). People compare shocks and their surrounding circumstances to their images, their values, their goals, and how they plan to achieve these goals; if the two are incompatible, thoughts of quitting occur (Lee et al., 1999). Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) suggest directions for future research to include the effect of host country embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intentions; their suggestions are based on Mitchell et al.'s (2001) proposition that host country embeddedness may buffer the effect of shocks on intent to quit.

This thesis contributes to our understanding of the role of shock on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. The relationship of shock with turnover intention was examined after controlling for job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness. Furthermore, the moderating

effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates was also investigated. The following section presents a summary of the key findings of this thesis.

7.4 Summary of key findings

In this section the various determinants of the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates are reviewed. As previously discussed in Chapter Three, this thesis proposes three paths which predict the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, namely, job satisfaction, job embeddedness and shock. The results are discussed in line with these three proposed paths. Finally, the findings of this thesis with respect to the moderating effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates is summarised. The research results broadly support the proposed hypotheses.

7.4.1 The effect of job satisfaction on self-initiated expatriates turnover intention

There is a considerable body of literature that discusses the importance of job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment on employee turnover (Porter et al., 1974; Mobley et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986; Gaertner, 1999; Kim et al., 1996). In this thesis, the results indicate that job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment have significant relationship with the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates.

Five variables are found to significantly relate to job satisfaction, the strongest of which is pay satisfaction. The effect of pay on job satisfaction is well established in the causal model of turnover (Price & Mueller, 1981; Kim et al., 1996). Expatriates come to the UAE seeking good economic opportunities and high paying jobs (Alnajjar, 1996; Randeree, 2009). Hence higher pay results in higher job satisfaction. Pay is a major determinant of selecting a job opportunity and of remaining in a job, among expatriates in the UAE.

The variable with the second strongest relationship with job satisfaction is co-worker support. This finding is especially interesting in this thesis for two reasons: first, self-initiated expatriates work with employees from different nationalities, ethnic groups and cultures, which creates challenges of working with a diverse workgroup. Alserhan

et al. (2010) note that expatriate employees, who share the same nationality or speak the same language, form groups inside organisations in the UAE, in order to support each other, and they strive to strengthen their position in the organisation by increasing their presence. On the other hand, Alserhan et al. (2010) state that although such groups have a positive influence on in-group members, they can be harmful to employees from different nationalities, because such groupings are hard for other employees to join. Second, co-workers represent a form of support for self-initiated expatriates. Bozionelos (2009) has found that peer support is related to job satisfaction among self-initiated expatriates. The development of interpersonal ties is a powerful source of support for self-initiated expatriates (Bozionelos, 2009), which explains why co-worker support significantly relates to job satisfaction among self-initiated expatriates in the UAE.

Other factors that significantly relate to job satisfaction include autonomy, promotional opportunities, and distributive justice, which have all been supported in causal model studies (Price & Mueller, 1981; Kim et al., 1996). Autonomy positively relates to job satisfaction (Brooke et al., 1988; Curry et al., 1986). Greater autonomy gives employees more freedom at work in terms of distributing their own effort and their work schedule, leading to higher job satisfaction (Nguyen et al., 2003). Promotion opportunity directly relates to job satisfaction (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Expatriates come to the UAE seeking high paying jobs (Alnajjar, 1996; Randeree, 2009), with promotion opportunities, the likelihood of getting a higher paid job increases, in addition to career development. Therefore promotional opportunities are related to the job satisfaction of self-initiated expatriates. Finally, distributive justice is related to job satisfaction (Greenberg, 1987; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). Pay and promotion inequalities between nationals and expatriates in the UAE may result in feelings of unfairness and perceptions of injustice, especially among expatriates (Alserhan et al., 2010; Askari et al., 1998; Goodwin & Preiss, 2010). Findings of this thesis indicate that distributive justice relates to the job satisfaction of self-initiated expatriates.

Four variables, procedural justice, workgroup cohesion, managerial support, and leader-member exchange, do not have a significant relationship with job satisfaction. It is important to note the possibility that one of the reasons that procedural justice

does not have a significant relationship with job satisfaction could be multicollinearity because the correlation of distributive and procedural justice is very strong ($r = 0.58$, $p < .01$). The absence of a relationship between managerial support and job satisfaction may indicate management ineffectiveness.

Management in UAE organisations in general and healthcare organisations in particular, is at the development stage. A survey by Wilkins (2001) of large business organisations in the UAE, found that 73% of organisations had a formal management training and development strategy; 73% had a training centre; 68% employed a training manager; 67% delivered management training programmes; and 38% employed six or more full time trainers. However, much of the management development activity is targeted at nationals (Wilkins, 2001). According to Wilkins (2001), many organisations are reluctant to invest in the training and development of expatriate employees because they are expected to arrive already qualified and experienced. Furthermore, high rates of employee turnover in the region do not make investments in management training and the development of expatriate employees cost effective. The lack of management training of expatriate employees results in managerial ineffectiveness and weak relationships between managers and their employees. This is more so in healthcare organisations, because healthcare professionals often take on managerial roles at short notice and with little or no preparation, their clinical qualifications do not prepare them for the relationships and practicalities involved in business management (Price & Scowcroft, 2010). Hartman and Crowe (2002) highlight the need for continuing education and skills development to enable healthcare managers to deal with the complexity of business within the healthcare industry. Amaize, Mady and Benson (2011) state that the development of the healthcare industry in the UAE has created a need for more management training programmes to meet manpower needs.

Findings of this thesis show that affective organisational commitment is significantly and positively related to tenure. That is, the longer self-initiated expatriates work for an organisation in the host country, the higher their affective organisational commitment. Affective organisational commitment is only related to one distal determinant, namely promotional opportunity. The growth in the healthcare industry in the UAE has resulted in many new opportunities for healthcare professionals.

Therefore, when a healthcare professional is working in an organisation with little or no promotion prospects, he/she is likely to have low commitment. Promotional opportunities are the only distal determinant that has an indirect relationship with turnover intention through both job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, in addition to having a direct relationship with turnover intention. This finding can be explained by examining the importance of promotional opportunities for self-initiated expatriates. The main reasons professionals self-initiate expatriation are: employment opportunities, income and professional development (e.g., Barrett & O'Connell, 2001; Hugo et al., 2003; Nerdrum & Sarpebakken, 2006; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). Hence, promotional opportunities are significantly related to self-initiated expatriates' job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and turnover intention.

Expatriates' turnover intentions are significantly related to job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. These determinants represent the job satisfaction path to turnover intention, which explains 38% of the variance of expatriates' turnover intentions. It will be recalled that one of the principle aims of this thesis is to examine the generalisability of turnover models on self-initiated expatriates in a non-western context (Holtom et al., 2008). The results indicate the generalisability of the causal model on the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates in a non-western context.

Turnover intention is significantly related to one of the control variables, namely, the occupational group of nurses. Nurses are more likely to have turnover intentions compared with other occupational groups. This can be explained by the shortage of nurses in the UAE, which results in more job opportunities for nurses and offers them the freedom to change jobs. Healthcare in the UAE is witnessing considerable growth as predicted in the report, *Sustainable and Profitable Healthcare Investment in the Middle East*; "the UAE healthcare market will grow over 14 percent annually between 2005 and 2015, from \$3.2bn to \$11.9bn" (*Boom in healthcare spending set to spur IT*, 2009). This growth has led to an increase in demand for healthcare professionals, in particular doctors and nurses. Yet another report, produced in partnership with Dow Jones Private Equity, *Expand, Consolidate & Support: Meeting the GCC Healthcare Challenge 2050*, highlight how; "the UAE alone will need

15,698 new beds and physicians along with 31,396 additional nurses” (*Expand, Consolidate and Support: Meeting The GCC Healthcare Challenge 2050*, 2009). The increasing shortage of nurses in the UAE creates a challenge for healthcare organisations in retaining nurses, given that 96% of nurses in the UAE are expatriates (Underwood, 2009).

Job security is proposed to have a significant relationship with self-initiated expatriates’ turnover intentions. The less secure an expatriate employee feels about his/her employment continuity, the more likely they are to have turnover intentions. This is especially true in the UAE because self-initiated expatriates have residency permits that are based on their job contracts. If they fear losing their job, they will, in turn, feel insecure about continuing their residency in the UAE. However, the results did not show a significant relationship between job security and turnover intention among self-initiated expatriates. This can be attributed to the wide availability of job opportunities for healthcare professionals in this country. Finally, kinship responsibility is proposed to have a significant relationship with self-initiated expatriates turnover intentions. Kinship responsibility decreases turnover intention (Price & Mueller, 1981). Research has shown that the family situation is the most important determinant of expatriate turnover (Harvey, 1985). The scale of kinship responsibility includes three variables: the number of dependents, living with spouse and living within 50 miles from relatives. Previous research has shown the effect of spouse and children on rates of expatriate turnover (E.g. Harvey, 1985; Naumann, 1992; Tung, 1982). Results indicate that the number of dependents living with an expatriate employee and a spouse living with an expatriate employee moderately and negatively relate to self-initiated expatriates’ turnover intentions.

7.4.2 The effect of embeddedness on self-initiated expatriates turnover intention

The results presented in Chapter Six indicate that on-the-job embeddedness relates to self-initiated expatriates’ turnover intentions over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Thus, on-the-job embeddedness measures new and meaningful variance in the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates. This finding is in line with Holtom and O’Neill’s (2004) results of the effect of embeddedness among healthcare professionals.

On-the-job embeddedness includes three elements: first, the self-initiated expatriate's fit with the job; second, the self-initiated expatriate's links; third, the self-initiated expatriate's sacrifices. As stated earlier, employment opportunities and professional development are main reasons for self-initiated expatriation, which reflects the fit. Self-initiated expatriates work in host country companies and multinational corporations, and develop working relationships with host country nationals and/or other expatriates (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). When self-initiated expatriates have strong interpersonal ties with mentors or co-workers, they are found to be more satisfied and less likely to have intentions to quit (Bozionelos, 2009) this reflects links; third, self-initiated expatriates may sacrifice income, professional development and different allowances if they quit their jobs. Therefore, they are embedded in their jobs to avoid the sacrifices they would have to make if they were to quit.

Off-the-job embeddedness is also proposed to relate to turnover intentions over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. However the results indicate that this relationship is not significant. The lack of significant relationship can be attributed to the availability of alternative jobs in the same community. Self-initiated expatriates can continue to live in the same community and maintain their community links if they find another job in the UAE. It is important to note the possibility that one of the reasons that off-the-job embeddedness does not significantly relate to the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates could be multicollinearity because the correlation between on- and off-the-job embeddedness is very strong ($r = 0.47$, $p < .01$).

7.4.3 The effect of shock on self-initiated expatriates turnover intention

Shock is related to self-initiated expatriates' turnover intentions over and beyond job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness. Any positive or negative shock a self-initiated expatriate may face is likely to initiate thoughts of quitting. Both positive shocks, like pregnancy that forces the expatriate to evaluate life abroad and think about leaving; and negative shocks, such as illness of a family member in the home country, may trigger thoughts of quitting. In the UAE, it is common to find self-initiated expatriates who quit their jobs to take care of an elderly parent in their home country, especially after incidents of family trauma. Schoepp and Forstenlechner (2010) state that the distance from

family in the home country is an important family-related variable that may result in leaving.

In addition to personal events that are external to the job like the examples mentioned above, shocks can result from personal events that are job or work-related, as well as organisational events. Examples may include sudden changes in management or working conditions, or collective turnover that may cause the remaining employees to re-evaluate their jobs.

7.4.4 The moderating effects of off-the-job embeddedness on shock-turnover intention relationship

A number of scholars have proposed a connection between embeddedness and shock, which, in turn, connects the embeddedness model and the unfolding model of employee turnover (see Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006; Mitchell et al., 2001; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). In this thesis the connection between embeddedness and shock was examined based on the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates. Off-the-job embeddedness was found to moderate the significant positive relationship between shock and turnover intention. The higher off-the-job embeddedness, which includes the expatriate's fit, links, and sacrifices with their community, the greater the relationship of shock and turnover intention. When self-initiated expatriates are highly embedded in the community a shock is associated with higher turnover intention. These individuals may feel more confident and better placed to get a job elsewhere in the community. This could be due to two reasons: First, as mentioned earlier, self-initiated expatriates can continue to live in the same community and maintain their community links if they find another job in the UAE; second, the links the expatriate has with the community may affect the interpretation of the shock. Holtom and Inderrieden (2006) explain that when an employee who has many strong links to the community experiences a shock, the shock interpretation will be affected by those links or by other people with similar interests and values. According to Holtom and Inderrieden (2006), those links are supposed to decrease the effect of shock on turnover intention. However, findings of this thesis reveal contrary results. The community links an expatriate has will make him/her feel more confident to find a job elsewhere. On the other hand if an expatriate has low embeddedness in the

community, he/she may be more risk averse and more concerned about their opportunities to secure another job.

7.5 Contribution to employee turnover literature

7.5.1 Contribution to job satisfaction models

This thesis contributes to the literature by studying a well-established, comprehensive, extensively studied turnover model, namely, the causal model, on a specific workforce, namely, self-initiated expatriates in the UAE, where expatriates represent the majority of the workforce. The findings indicate the generalisability of the causal model of turnover on self-initiated expatriates in the UAE. However, earlier results of the relationship of management support and leader-member-exchange and job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment were not found for self-initiated expatriates in the UAE. As discussed earlier, this might be connected to issues related to management development in the UAE.

In addition to the generalisability of the causal model of turnover on self-initiated expatriates in the UAE, this study contributes to the literature by addressing the following elements of the causal model: First, Price (2001, p.611) recommended adding procedural justice to the model; “the evidence for procedural justice’s positive impact on job satisfaction is of such a magnitude as to require its inclusion in future research”. Although this was undertaken in this thesis, the results failed to show a significant relationship of procedural justice and job satisfaction or affective organisational commitment. Second, Price (2001, p.612) advised studying a more diverse sample. This thesis contributes to the literature by including a diverse sample of self-initiated expatriates comprising 23 nationalities and different occupational groups. Third, Gaertner’s (1999) findings indicate that pay is not a significant determinant of job satisfaction when controls are added (Price, 2001). According to Price (2001) pay should be kept in the model because there is a considerable amount of data supporting its role (e.g., Hom & Griffeth, 1995). This thesis contributes to the literature by validating the positive significant relationship of pay and job satisfaction among self-initiated expatriates in the UAE. The significance of pay in this sample may be attributed to the importance of pay for self-initiated expatriates. Self-initiated expatriates seek good economic and professional opportunities away from their home country (Fontes, 2007; Hugo et al., 2003; Inkson et al., 2004). Research has found

that expatriates come to the UAE seeking high paying jobs and professional career development (Alnajjar, 1996; Randeree, 2009). These might be reasons for the significant effect of pay on job satisfaction among self-initiated expatriates. Fourth, the causal model proposes many determinants of affective organisational commitment, namely, promotional opportunities, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support, and leader-member exchange. However, the findings of this study indicate that only promotional opportunities significantly and positively relate to affective organisational commitment. This might be attributed to the fact that self-initiated expatriates leave their home countries seeking better economic and professional opportunities. The primary motivators for this group of employees are high pay and good professional opportunities. If they believe their organisation will provide them the career opportunities they aspire to, they will be committed to it, if not, their commitment may be adversely affected.

Part of the questionnaire used in this study asked participants why they chose to come to the UAE specifically. The results indicate that the top two reasons expatriates come to the UAE are to get a high paying job (on a Likert scale from one to five, with five meaning strongly agree the mean is 4.12 and the SD is 0.75); and to develop their professional skills (mean = 4.13, SD = 0.75) (see Appendix III). These results support the findings of the casual model explained earlier.

7.5.2 Contribution to embeddedness models

This thesis contributes to the literature of job embeddedness by investigating the relationship of job embeddedness and the turnover intentions among self-initiated expatriates in a non-Western context. The self-initiated expatriates who participated in this research, comprise 23 different nationalities. Findings indicate that on-the-job embeddedness relates to the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. These results support the growing body of literature that validates the relationship of job embeddedness on turnover intentions, by generalising the job embeddedness - turnover intention relationship on self-initiated expatriates working in a non-Western context.

As discussed earlier, according to Mitchell et al. (2001), the relationships between job embeddedness and turnover outcomes may vary by sample or context attributes. Contextual factors can be divided into three levels: national, organisational and individual (Holtom et al., 2008; Jiang et al., 2012). At the national level, this thesis contributes to the literature by validating the effect of job embeddedness on turnover intentions in the United Arab Emirates. At the organisational level, the two organisations used in this thesis are public hospitals where expatriate employees represent around 80-90% of the workforce. The results indicate that job embeddedness predicts turnover intentions, further supporting the notion that the relationship between job embeddedness and turnover criteria is significant in public organisations, and in organisations with high expatriate representation. At the individual level, this thesis contributes to the literature by examining the validity of the embeddedness model on one individual characteristic of employees, namely expatriation.

Apart from Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) study, which investigates the effect of host country embeddedness on the repatriation of Australian self-initiated expatriates, previous research has rarely examined the generalisability of job embeddedness theory among expatriate employees. Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) suggest that professionals' careers may embed them abroad. The results of this thesis indicate that on-the-job embeddedness negatively relates to the turnover intentions of a diverse group of self-initiated expatriates working in the UAE over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Off-the-job embeddedness does not relate to self-initiated expatriates' turnover intentions. This may be attributed to the ease of changing jobs in the UAE.

Expatriates are embedded in UAE organisations due to number of reasons: First, expatriates come to the UAE seeking good economic opportunities and high paying jobs (Alnajjar, 1996; Randeree, 2009). Expatriates may perceive well-paid jobs as good fit. The vast majority of UAE organisations use English as the main language of communication, which may also be perceived by expatriates as a reason for good fit. Moreover, most UAE organisations follow international standards like International Organisation for Standardization (ISO) and use equipment and machinery that are internationally approved (such as, Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and

European Commission (EC) approved). For example, many hospitals in the UAE hold the international accreditation of Joint Commission International Accreditation (JCIA) (Shammaa, 2008), and all companies are required to apply international accounting standards and practices, which are generally interpreted to mean using International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) (*New UAE Companies Law requires IFRS*, 2015). Working at organisations that follow international standards of operation in the UAE may be perceived as good fit for expatriates.

Second, expatriates' interpersonal ties (such as their relationships with mentors and co-workers) have been found to negatively affect turnover intentions (Bozionelos, 2009). Therefore, having more interpersonal relationships within an organisation increases the expatriates' links to the organisation. Expatriates represent the majority of the workforce in many UAE organisations and such expatriate workforces are large and diverse. Hence, it is easy for new arrivals to form links with people of the same nationality and ethnicity, with other expatriates and with UAE nationals. It is not difficult for expatriates to make such links because of the international expatriate population, and the tolerant environment that is generally accepting of different cultures and religions.

Third, all public organisations in the UAE offer attractive remuneration packages in order to attract qualified expatriates. Such remuneration packages include a housing allowance, or housing inside the company's compounds, healthcare plans, an education allowance, a transportation allowance, and annual plane tickets to the expatriate's home country. Many expatriates prefer to work in public organisations because of the generous housing allowance these organisations provide; especially as rents are very high in the UAE in general, and in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi in particular. Rent is the largest living expense in the UAE and can take up almost 50% of a monthly salary (Expatarrrivals.com). When an expatriate employee decides to quit working for a public company in the UAE, he/she will sacrifice their housing allowance, their children's education allowance and other benefits. By definition these sacrifices are the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that employees say they would have to sacrifice if they left their jobs (Mitchell et al., 2001). Therefore, expatriates are embedded in their organisation due to sacrifices.

Off-the-job embeddedness is important for the expatriate employee, as he/she has to live temporarily in a foreign country to meet job requirements (Shaffer, Harrison, & Gilley, 1999). According to Mitchell et al. (2001, p. 1117); “Embeddedness may have even stronger effects for people in professions in which changing jobs usually involves changing locations.” Expatriates become embedded in the UAE community because it is a safe and tolerant community that accepts different cultures and religions, it has many options for international schools, and the UAE is a tax-free country. Although off-the-job embeddedness does not have direct relationship with self-initiated expatriates’ turnover intentions, it does have a moderating effect on the relationship between shock and self-initiated expatriates’ turnover intentions.

7.5.3 Contribution to the unfolding model

This research contributes to the literature of embeddedness theory (Mitchell et al., 2001) and unfolding theory (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) by examining the relationship of shock and the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. The findings indicate that shock positively relates to the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates over and beyond job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and job embeddedness.

This thesis contributes to the literature by examining the interaction relationship of shock and off-the-job embeddedness on turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. The interaction of shock and high off-the job embeddedness is associated with higher turnover intentions among self-initiated expatriates. Off-the-job embeddedness is found to moderate the positive relationship between shock and turnover intentions. The stronger expatriates’ off-the-job embeddedness, the stronger the effect of shock on turnover intentions. This finding is inconsistent with Holtom and Inderrieden’s (2006) proposition that embeddedness weakens the effect of shock on turnover.

An expatriate who has many strong links to his/her community and who experiences shock, will interpret the shock in a way that is affected by their links or by other people with similar interests and values. The support system an expatriate may have through their strong community links leads them to have higher intention to quit, as they are more confident about getting a job elsewhere in the community.

Additionally, the community links may assist the expatriate to find another job, soon after experiencing a shock. A shock may result in fear of leaving the community, if the expatriate did not find another job in the UAE. As noted earlier, expatriates can only live in the UAE if they have a job, if they have an investment, or if they are sponsored by another expatriate who is either working in the UAE, or has an entrepreneurial activity in the country. By definition, a shock is a jarring event that jolts an employee into considering the continuity of their current employment. Hence, a shock accompanied with high off-the-job embeddedness would appear to result in higher turnover intentions among self-initiated expatriates because they feel more confident finding another job in the country.

Expatriate employees may experience a wide range of shocks, as they are working in an organization in a foreign country and have foreign managers and co-workers. Therefore the likelihood of misunderstandings and shocks is high. Expatriates may experience a shock because of an appraisal they do not agree with, a salary increase that is not shared with them or because they are bypassed for promotion or a co-worker is promoted instead. Another type of shock an expatriate may experience is illness of a family member, which may cause the expatriate employee to quit and leave the UAE to go back to their home country to take care of their sick relative. One of the main disadvantages of working in the UAE for Western expatriates is the geographical distance from their home countries (Schoepp & Forstenlechner, 2010).

7.6 Practical implications

In addition to the contributions to the literature described in the section above, some practical implications can also be drawn from the findings of this thesis. The increasing percentage of self-initiated expatriates worldwide makes this research relevant to managers of host country organisations and multinational corporations that rely heavily on self-initiated expatriates to make up for the shortage of national workers in certain fields. These practical implications are presented as general recommendations for the retention of self-initiated expatriates based on the findings of this thesis, and as specific recommendations related to increasing the embeddedness of self-initiated expatriates, both in the organisation and in the host country community.

7.6.1 Retention of self-initiated expatriates

The results of this study suggest strategies that could help organisations in the UAE and any other host country retain their self-initiated expatriate employees. To begin with, promotional opportunity was found to be a key determinant of self-initiated expatriates' job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Additionally, pay and co-worker support were found to significantly affect the job satisfaction of self-initiated expatriates. The management of host country organisations need to encourage their expatriate professionals to stay by offering them competitive remuneration packages, which include different allowances such as housing allowance, healthcare insurance, child allowance and education allowance. Organisations may also retain expatriates by enhancing their career development plans, reward systems and promotion systems. Additionally, managers should enhance co-worker relationships by involving expatriate employees in teamwork and having social activities that will foster relationships between co-workers.

Expatriates' level of embeddedness in both their organisations and their communities within the host country can reduce their turnover intentions. These findings suggest that a focus purely on the pay and job satisfaction of self-initiated expatriates may be limited in scope (Mitchell et al., 2001; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Expatriates' perceptions of fit, their links and the sacrifices they may endure as a result of quitting, serve to keep them in their jobs. The implications of embeddedness effects on the retention of self-initiated expatriates are explained in the following section.

7.6.2 Embeddedness of self-initiated expatriates

The implications of thinking about job embeddedness are quite different from thoughts about increasing job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. The factors that managers need to consider to manage turnover are conceptually very different (Mitchell et al., 2001). According to Lee et al. (2004), organisations can be proactive about increasing job embeddedness; fit can be increased by matching employees' skills, knowledge, abilities and attitudes with job requirements; links can be increased through long-term projects and teams; and sacrifices can be increased by connecting organisational and job rewards to longevity. Additionally, organisations can influence off-the-job embeddedness by providing employees with information

about the community, and providing social support for community activities and events (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001).

According to Jiang et al. (2012), the value of job embeddedness in retaining employees is amplified if organisations want to retain their key employees. Self-initiated expatriates are mostly professionals who have the expertise required by host country organisations, which is lacking in the local workforce. Therefore professional expatriates are key employees that host country organisations and multinational corporations want to retain because the knowledge and experiences that such employees hold can add value in terms of human capital, organisational memory, firm-specific knowledge and tacit know-how, beyond the costs associated with selection, recruitment and training (Holtom et al., 2008).

The findings of this study indicate that on-the-job embeddedness relates to the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. The management of host country organisations and multinational corporations that rely heavily on expatriate workforce may benefit from helping employees feel connected at work through increasing their fit, links and sacrifices. Expatriates' organisation-fit can be increased by offering the employee training and development courses and providing them with a clear career development and promotion path. Furthermore, organisations can retain self-initiated expatriates through reward management and career development initiatives (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). For example, organisations can create continuous education programmes, and enable employees to attend training and development courses. Most hospitals and clinics in the UAE require medical professionals to attend a certain number of continuing medical education (CME) and continuing professional development (CPD) hours per year. Between the years 2005 to 2009, Abu Dhabi Health Authority (HAAD) offered 1290 CME/CPD programmes and over 44,000 healthcare professionals were enrolled in these programmes (*Continuing medical education (CME)*, 2015). Continuous training and development increases employees' fit to an organisation. Expatriates' organisation-links can be increased by making them mentors and putting them on long-term projects (Mitchell et al., 2001). Links can be increased through teamwork and social activities that result in stronger ties between employees (Lee et al., 2004). For example, organisations in the UAE could

adopt mentoring programmes, especially for newcomers, where the mentor helps the new employee settle into the organisation and the community. Another example is holding weekly lectures; both public hospitals included in this research have weekly lectures open to all employees. Such lectures include different work-related topics and allow employees to meet and be introduced to others working in different departments in the organisation, which may strengthen employees' links to the organisation. Expatriates' organisation-sacrifices can be increased by offering them end of service pensions that increase with tenure. In addition, attractive allowances may increase organisation-sacrifices. For example, some organisations in the UAE offer school allowances for up to four children. Another example is good healthcare insurance; some organisations in the UAE offer international healthcare insurance, or healthcare insurance in the home country, in addition to the healthcare insurance in the UAE. Some organisations in the UAE provide excellent housing in high standard compounds. These compounds are very attractive to many expatriates because of the facilities provided, such as swimming pools, fitness centres, play parks and sports courts.

Managers of host country organisations should work on improving their expatriate employees' fit and links with the community, by providing support and resources for community activities and involvement (Mitchell et al., 2001). Additionally, organisations can increase off-the-job embeddedness through community involvement programmes, including those for families (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Organisations can further influence community embeddedness through informal get-togethers and work parties that promote leisure activities and community attractions (Crossley et al., 2007). Moreover, in order to promote off-the-job embeddedness, managers can encourage employees to volunteer in community activities (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010).

Findings of this thesis indicate that shock relates to the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. This result has implications for managers because many of the shocks are organisational in nature (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). Additionally, findings from this thesis demonstrate the moderating effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. The interaction of shock and high off-the job embeddedness is

associated with higher turnover intentions among self-initiated expatriates. Self-initiated expatriates with high community embeddedness have higher quit intentions when they experience shock. Therefore, managers should design systems to identify potential shocks and respond to them accordingly (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). Ramesh and Gelfand (2010), propose that companies routinely survey employees' on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness, and respond in a timely manner to indications of low embeddedness before they become withdrawal behaviours. Managers should also continuously find ways to improve employees' performance, because this will increase their on-the-job embeddedness (Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Finally, organisations may benefit from helping employees feel embedded. However, Crossley et al. (2007) warns against one potential downside of job embeddedness, namely that employees who feel stuck in an unfavorable job may experience frustration, lose their motivation and could even engage in counterproductive workplace behaviours.

7.7 Limitations of this research

This thesis has a number of limitations. The first concerns the difficulty of gathering identification information from the respondents, which could be used to subsequently link attitudinal data to actual turnover. Bergman et al. (2012) note that the biggest challenges in conducting turnover research are the requirement that information must contain identification information that can be linked to the criterion data, namely, actual turnover, and the need to wait a sufficient amount of time to collect actual turnover data. The difficulty of collecting identification information in this study is a result of elements related to the research sample and context. As far as the research sample is concerned, the residency of self-initiated expatriates in the host country is linked to job contracts. If they lose their jobs, they will lose the opportunity of residing in the host country. This may jeopardise the credibility of their responses if they were to identify themselves in their responses. The only way to ensure honest responses from a group of diverse self-initiated expatriates is to guarantee the anonymity of the research results, which will be ideally achieved if no identification information is requested. Regarding the context, research opportunities are limited in the UAE; employees are not accustomed to participating in research projects, therefore are not confident that their anonymity will be protected once they have provided identification information. One of the main reasons this research received ethical approval for data collection from the hospitals was that no identification

information was required. Other researchers also acknowledge the difficulties related to data collection in the Middle East. Getting access to a random sample is extremely challenging in the Middle East (Robertson et al., 2002), and is considered one of the main trade offs for doing research in this region (Whiteoak et al., 2006).

The lack of identification information in this research did not only prevent the possibility of measuring actual turnover, it also eliminates the possibility of keeping a record of where self-initiated expatriates who quit end up going. Whether they work at another organisation in the UAE, whether they go to work at another expatriate destination, or whether they return to their home countries. Future research will benefit greatly from including identification information to measure actual turnover and to track post turnover destinations of self-initiated expatriates. Hom et al. (2012) suggest considering post turnover destinations to further understand the drivers of employee turnover. However considering the constraints of collecting identifiable questionnaires from self-initiated expatriates, future research may benefit from using alternative sampling approaches, such as snowball sampling, that have been proven effective in collecting sensitive data (Lee, 1993). Random sampling may also be used, although not through organisations where expatriates are currently working, as in this study, rather through professional associations. Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) sought self-initiated expatriates via ten Australian professional associations such as the Institute of Chartered Accountants Australia. As a result of focusing on Australian self-initiated expatriates, Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) faced the issue of data generalisability. Yet, there are many international professional associations that include members from different countries. Future research may benefit from seeking access to self-initiated expatriates through these types of associations. Such an approach would certainly lessen the problem of data identification, because the employer is removed from the data collection process, allowing self-initiated expatriates to have the anonymity and freedom to honestly respond to questionnaires.

The second limitation concerns the reliance on a questionnaire administered at a single point of time, which may result in common method variance, an issue that a number of studies examining the effect of embeddedness on voluntary turnover have considered (see for example, Allen, 2006; Crossley et al., 2007). Common method variance is attributable to the measurement method, rather than to the constructs the

measures represent (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 879). Podsakoff et al. (2003) propose procedural remedies to control common method variance, such as obtaining measures of the predictor and the criterion from different sources, however according to Podsakoff et al. (2003, p. 887); “Despite the obvious advantages of this approach, it is not feasible to use in all cases.” For example, studies examining the relationship between two or more job attitudes cannot get measures of these constructs from different sources. Another problem that arises from obtaining data from different sources is that it must be linked together, which requires identifying variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Respondents’ identification could compromise their anonymity, and reduce their willingness to participate in the research or change the nature of their responses (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Another procedural remedy indicated by Podsakoff et al. (2003) is to protect respondents’ anonymity and assure them that there are no right or wrong answers. Such procedures would encourage respondents to answer as honestly as possible, and make them less likely to edit their responses in order to make them more socially desirable and consistent with how they think the researcher wants them to answer (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This thesis ensures the anonymity of respondents throughout the data collection process, starting with the random distribution of hard copy questionnaires, asking respondents not to give any identification information in the completed questionnaires, and, lastly, asking respondents to return completed questionnaires into a locked box that only the researcher has access to. This process helped to minimise the risk of common method variance.

Podsakoff et al. (2003) list Harman’s single-factor test as one of the most widely used techniques to address common method variance. The basic assumption of this technique is that if a substantial amount of the common variance is present in the study, then one general factor will account for the majority of the covariance among the measure. Harman’s single-factor test was performed in this study and it showed that the first factor accounted for 39.15% of the covariance among measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003), suggesting that common method variance is not a serious issue for this study (see Appendix V). Nevertheless, future research would benefit from temporally separating the measures of job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, embeddedness, shock and turnover intention. Podsakoff et al. (2003) propose temporal separation of measurement as one of the procedural remedies for

common method variance. Future research may also benefit from using multiple sources of data, such as including actual turnover after six months or one year of data collection, a method widely used in voluntary turnover research (see for example, Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986).

7.8 Directions for future research

This section addresses future research directions in the study of the voluntary turnover of self-initiated expatriates and future research directions for developing both the embeddedness and the unfolding models of employee turnover.

This study focuses on turnover intentions as the criterion to understand the voluntary turnover of self-initiated expatriates. Future research should focus on the actual turnover of self-initiated expatriates. According to Bozionelos (2009), behavioural intentions and attitudes determine actual behaviour. Turnover intention is highly associated with key work behaviours such as actual turnover (Harrison et al., 2006). Nevertheless, in addition to attitude and intention criteria, “future research could also employ the criteria that reflect actual behaviours, such as voluntary turnover” (Bozionelos, 2009, p.129). Future research should also focus on the post turnover destinations of self-initiated expatriates. These destinations may include, finding another job in the same host country, relocating to another expatriation destination, and returning to the home country. It is not uncommon for some Asian expatriate nurses to work in the UAE for a period of time and then decide to immigrate to a Western country. Post turnover destination could be very diverse, and learning about this will help in understanding the voluntary turnover of self-initiated expatriates. Furthermore, future research should address longer-term outcomes of self-initiated expatriation. Bozionelos (2009, p.129) states that such outcomes may include, “willingness to seek self-initiated expatriation again upon return to the home country, the career impact of the expatriate appointment, and the perceived benefits of the expatriate experience.”

This study found that the only distal determinant that significantly relates to affective organisational commitment among self-initiated expatriates is promotional opportunity. The other determinants examined do not have a significant relationship with affective organisational commitment, namely distributive justice, procedural

justice, work-group cohesion, managerial support, and leader-member exchange. Future research should further investigate the antecedents of affective organisational commitment among self-initiated expatriates. Additionally, future research should investigate the relationship of alternative opportunities and the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates. Different alternative opportunities should be assessed, for example alternative opportunities in the host country, in the home country, and at another expatriation destination. Lastly, job search should also be examined and categorised into job search in the host country, in the home country and at another expatriation destination.

Finally, there is a need for more research to explain the voluntary turnover of self-initiated expatriates using different turnover models, such as implementing the different paths proposed by the unfolding model (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) in explaining the voluntary turnover of self-initiated expatriates. Lee and Mitchell propose five paths that unfold leading to employee turnover: the first path is characterised by a shock that the employee relates to a similar shock, situation and response. This evaluation leads to quitting without considering current attachment to the organisation and without considering job alternatives (Lee et al., 1999); the second path is characterised by a shock, which the employee has no personal or situational experiences similar to. Such a shock prompts the employee to re-evaluate his/her attachment to the organisation and, as a result, decides to stay or quit; the third path is characterised by a shock that signals to the employee to evaluate alternative job opportunities and whether working for another organisation is more suitable (Lee & Mitchell, 1994); the fourth path is characterised by increasing dissatisfaction that leads to turnover without having alternative job offers; the fifth path is characterised by increasing dissatisfaction that leads to lower affective organisational commitment, job search, evaluation of alternative offers and finally quitting (Lee et al., 1999).

According to Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) research should examine whether a variety of paths lead to self-initiated expatriate turnover, as they do in the unfolding theory of turnover. Bozionelos (2009, p.129) highlights the importance of further research and empirical studies to examine the voluntary turnover of self-initiated expatriates: “considering the contemporary nature of non-corporate-sponsored

expatriation and the scarcity of empirical studies on it, such research appears to be a necessity.”

There is a need for more empirical research to examine the applicability of Lee and Mitchell’s (1994) unfolding model of turnover. There are many questions regarding the timing and impact of shocks (Holtom et al., 2008). According to Holtom et al. (2008), over time employees may become embedded (Allen, 2006) and, consequently, develop buffering or coping mechanisms against future shocks (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). This study has examined the moderating effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates. This moderation relationship should be examined among different samples other than self-initiated expatriates, in order to identify the type of effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the shock-turnover intention relationship. The moderation effect should also be examined with respect to the relationship between shock and actual turnover. Lee and Mitchell (1994) conceptualise shocks using three different dimensions; expected versus unexpected; positive versus neutral versus negative; and internal versus external. According to Holtom et al. (2008), these dimensions have so far been ignored in empirical research. Future research could examine how different shocks influence turnover decisions. Holtom et al. (2008, p. 260) state; “The timing, frequency, valence and salience of shocks may be an important area for future research.”

7.9 Summary

The aim of this thesis is to contribute to existing knowledge of the determinants of self-initiated expatriates’ turnover intention, in the hope that a better understanding of the turnover intention antecedents would help organisations that rely on self-initiated expatriates to retain their employees. The empirical findings of this research have made a number of original contributions to the body of knowledge on voluntary employee turnover, with regard to the validity of existing models, namely, the causal model (Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986), the embeddedness model (Mitchell et al., 2001) and the unfolding model (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) in explaining the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates, in addition to combining the embeddedness model and the unfolding model to clarify the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates.

The findings have generated several suggestions for the management of host country organisations and multinational corporations in retaining self-initiated expatriates. The two distal variables with the strongest relationship with job satisfaction are pay and co-worker support. Pay and co-worker support positively relate to job satisfaction, which negatively relates to turnover intention. This causal relationship highlights the importance of pay and co-worker support. Organisations should offer an attractive remuneration package to retain self-initiated expatriates; additionally they should encourage expatriates to have good relationships with co-workers, through supporting teamwork and social events. The only distal variable that predicts affective organisational commitment is promotional opportunity. Organisations should have clear career development plans and promotion system in place to retain self-initiated expatriates. On-the-job embeddedness significantly relates to turnover intention over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Organisations should aim to increase on-the-job embeddedness of self-initiated expatriates by: first, increasing their fit by matching employees' knowledge, skills and experience with the tasks they perform. In addition, they should offer self-initiated expatriates training and development courses and clear career development plans. Second, organisations should seek to increase the links of self-initiated expatriates using long-term projects and teamwork. Third, organisations should foster self-initiated expatriates' sacrifices by connecting job rewards to longevity (Lee et al., 2004). Finally, shock significantly relates to the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates. Findings also indicate that the interaction of shock and high off-the-job embeddedness is associated with higher turnover intention. Organisations should design systems to identify potential shocks and respond to them (Holtom & Inderrinden, 2006).

If these suggestions can be put into action and host country organisations and multinational corporations increase their retention of self-initiated expatriates, organisations can only stand to benefit. High turnover rates are often found to be harmful to organisational performance (Glebbeck & Bax, 2004). The retention of qualified employees is very important for organisational success, due to labour shortages in certain industries worldwide and due to the costs of turnover (Holtom et al., 2008). Moreover, enhancing job embeddedness results in improving organisational citizenship behaviours and job performance (Lee et al., 2004). The

number of self-initiated expatriates is increasing across the globe, with certain countries witnessing a massive increase in the flux of expatriates, such as the UAE (Finaccord, 2014). Investigating the determinants of turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates is important to organisations worldwide because the retention of professional expatriates clearly has the potential to enhance organisational success.

7.10 Conclusion

This chapter outlines the purpose of this thesis. It discusses relevant topics such as the growing number of self-initiated expatriates worldwide; the gaps in the literature of self-initiated expatriate turnover; the difference between self-initiated expatriates and other employees, and finally self-initiated expatriates in the UAE. This is followed by a brief discussion of the background of employee turnover literature, including the job satisfaction model, embeddedness model and unfolding model, and relating these to research on the turnover of self-initiated expatriates. Finally, this thesis contributes to the literature of employee turnover by seeking to test the validity and appropriateness of employee turnover models on self-initiated expatriates.

A summary of key findings is then presented in three parts: findings related to job satisfaction models of employee turnover; findings related to embeddedness models; findings related to the unfolding model of employee turnover; and finally findings concerning the moderating effect of off-the job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions. The contribution of this thesis to employee turnover literature is then discussed in line with the three paths to turnover, job satisfaction, embeddedness and shock. This is followed by practical implications, limitations of the study, and directions for future research.

Chapter Eight- Conclusion

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Synthesis of contributions to the field
- 8.3 Synthesis of findings
- 8.4 Synthesis of implications
- 8.5 Conclusion

Chapter Eight - Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a synthesis of the results, the key contributions and implications of this thesis. The first section addresses the key contributions made by this thesis, followed by a synthesis of thesis findings and its implications.

8.2 Synthesis of contributions to the field

This thesis examined the determinants of self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). The aim of this research was to provide a model of turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, based on job satisfaction models of turnover, the embeddedness model of turnover and the unfolding model of turnover, in addition to examining the generalisability of turnover models among self-initiated expatriates in a non-Western context, the UAE. An integrated model was developed that includes attitudinal variables and job characteristics to explain self-initiated expatriates' intentions to quit. The model also includes on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness factors that explain why self-initiated expatriates want to stay in their jobs, as well as, incorporating the element of shock, which is a jarring event that may initiate thoughts of quitting. It was expected that off-the-job embeddedness would act as a moderator between shock and the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates.

This thesis contributes to the literature on employee turnover in various ways. To begin with, this study has extended the work on self-initiated expatriate turnover by examining the effects of job satisfaction models (Price & Mueller, 1981; 1986) on the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, by investigating the relationship of the attitudinal variables, namely, job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, in addition to a number of distal variables, namely, pay satisfaction, autonomy, promotional opportunities, distributive justice, procedural justice, co-worker support, workgroup cohesion, managerial support, and leader-member exchange with the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. The relationships of on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness with the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates were examined, after controlling for job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Finally, the relationships of shock and the

turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates was examined after controlling for job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and both on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness.

This thesis has demonstrated the generalisability of the embeddedness model (Mitchell et al, 2001) to explain the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. One prominent issue in studying the effect of job embeddedness on employee turnover is the consistency regarding the unique effects of the two dimensions of job embeddedness, namely, on- and off-the-job embeddedness. Lee et al. (2004) demonstrated that off-the-job embeddedness is negatively related to voluntary turnover; whereas Mallol, Holtom and Lee (2007) found that on-the-job embeddedness is negatively related to voluntary turnover. This thesis has examined the relationship of on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness with the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates.

Finally, this study has investigated the relationship of shock and the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates. This thesis contributes to the literature by examining the relationship of shock and the turnover intentions of a diverse sample of self-initiated expatriates, spanning 23 different nationalities. Holtom et al. (2008) suggest that the future theoretical development of job embeddedness would benefit greatly from exploration of the likely moderators of this model and Mitchell et al. (2001) propose using both the unfolding model and the concept of job embeddedness to better understand voluntary turnover. This thesis contributes to the literature by using both the unfolding model and embeddedness model to better understand the turnover intention of self-initiated expatriates, through exploration of the moderating effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates.

8.3 Synthesis of findings

The research findings are presented in Chapter Six and are discussed thoroughly in Chapter Seven. This section synthesises the research findings. To begin with, job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment were revealed to be negatively related to the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. The relationship of distal variables and job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment also mostly

supported the proposed hypotheses. Pay, autonomy, promotional opportunities, distributive justice and co-worker support were found to positively relate to job satisfaction. Promotional opportunities were also found to positively relate to affective organisational commitment. Expatriates come to the UAE seeking good economic opportunities and high paying jobs (Alnajjar, 1996; Randeree, 2009), which explains the positive relationship of promotional opportunities and both job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Pay has the strongest positive relationship with job satisfaction, followed by co-worker support. This finding is consistent with Bozionelos's (2009) results that showed peer support is related to job satisfaction among self-initiated expatriates. Contrary to our expectations, procedural justice, work-group cohesion, managerial support and leader-member exchange have no relationship with job satisfaction or affective organisational commitment.

The results also indicate that on-the-job embeddedness negatively relates to the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment, whereas off-the-job embeddedness does not. This result is consistent with Mallol, Holtom and Lee's (2007) findings. The relationship of both on-and off-the job embeddedness with turnover intention over and beyond job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment have been widely supported in various settings (see for example, Allen, 2006; Crossely et al., 2007; Holtom & O'Neill, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). This thesis contributes to the existing literature, by demonstrating that on-the-job embeddedness significantly and negatively relates to turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates in a non-Western context.

Finally, our findings show a significant positive relationship between shock and the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates over and beyond job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, and job embeddedness. This relationship is moderated by off-the-job embeddedness. The thesis contributes to the employee turnover literature by linking the job embeddedness model of turnover to the unfolding model of turnover, by examining the moderating effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and the turnover intentions among self-initiated expatriates. Off-the-job embeddedness is found to moderate the strong positive relationship between shock and turnover intentions. The interaction of shock

and high off-the job embeddedness is associated with higher turnover intentions among self-initiated expatriates. This result is not consistent with Holtom and Inderrieden's (2006) proposition that job embeddedness moderates the relationship between shock and turnover in such a way that high embeddedness weakens the effect of shock on turnover. An expatriate who has many strong links to his/her community and who experiences shock, will interpret the shock in a way that is affected by their links or by other people with similar interests and values. The findings of this thesis indicate that when an expatriate has high community embeddedness a shock is associated with higher turnover intention, as he/she is more confident and better placed to get a job elsewhere in the community. On the other hand, when an expatriate has low community embeddedness he/she may be more risk averse and more concerned about his/her opportunities to secure another job.

In terms of the overall proposed model in this thesis, the results are consistent with the predictions of Price and Mueller (1981; 1986), Price (2000) and Kim et al. (1996) in the causal model of employee turnover. The results also fall in line with the predictions of Mitchell et al. (2001) in the embeddedness model of turnover and with the predictions of Lee and Mitchell (1994) in the unfolding model of turnover, in terms of the relationship of shock and turnover intentions. This consistency implies the generalisability of these models in explaining the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, in addition to their generalisability in explaining turnover intentions in a non-Western context, namely, the UAE.

8.4 Synthesis of implications

This section outlines the implications of this study's results. Firstly, the positive relationship of promotional opportunity and self-initiated expatriates' job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment draws attention to the importance of career development plans, reward systems, and promotion systems to retain self-initiated expatriates. Additionally, the strong positive relationship of co-worker support and job satisfaction emphasises the importance of enhancing co-workers' relationships by involving expatriate employees in teamwork and having social activities that will foster relationships between co-workers. Secondly, the negative relationship of on-the-job embeddedness and the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates suggests a need to enhance expatriate organisation-fit by offering employee training and

development courses and a clear career development and promotion path. Furthermore, organisations can retain self-initiated expatriates through reward management and career development initiatives (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Expatriate organisation-links can be enhanced through teamwork and social activities that result in deep ties among employees (Lee et al., 2004). Additionally, expatriate organisation-sacrifices can be increased by the offer of end of service pensions that increase with tenure, and by provision of attractive allowances. Thirdly, the strong positive relationship of shock and the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates has important implications for managers, because many of these shocks are organisational in nature (Holtom & Inderrirden, 2006). Therefore, managers should design systems to identify potential shocks and how to respond to them. This is particularly important, because findings indicate that the interaction of shock and high off-the job embeddedness is associated with higher turnover intentions among self-initiated expatriates.

8.5 Conclusion

In summary, this thesis has sought to contribute to the employee turnover literature by proposing a model of self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions, and by examining the validity and generalisability of existing turnover models on self-initiated expatriates, a segment of the workforce that hitherto has not been sufficiently studied. Findings of this thesis show that the classical determinants of employee turnover intentions, such as job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment have a strong relationship with the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates. Contemporary turnover theories, such as the embeddedness theory and unfolding theory, can also be applied to self-initiated expatriates. On-the-job embeddedness negatively relates to the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, whereas off-the-job embeddedness does not relate to self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions. One significant finding is the strong relationship of shock and self-initiated expatriate turnover intentions. This relationship is moderated by off-the-job embeddedness. This thesis is an attempt to understand the determinants of the turnover intentions of self-initiated expatriates, who form a unique segment of the workforce with contemporary nature and scarcity of empirical research.

Appendix I: Nonlinearity tests

Table 1: Nonlinearity tests for turnover intention and each of the proximal determinants.

		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Turnover Intention and Job Satisfaction	(Combined)	45.36	10	4.54	7.36	0.00
	Linearity	37.84	1	37.84	61.38	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	7.51	9	0.84	1.35	0.21
Turnover Intention and Affective organisational commitment	(Combined)	49.48	14	3.53	6.01	0.00
	Linearity	42.29	1	42.29	71.87	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	7.19	13	0.55	0.94	0.51
Turnover Intention and on-the-job embeddedness	(Combined)	53.98	25	2.16	3.46	0.00
	Linearity	42.98	1	42.98	68.86	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	10.99	24	0.46	0.734	0.81
Turnover Intention and off-the-job embeddedness	(Combined)	31.90	29	1.10	1.49	0.06
	Linearity	6.56	1	6.56	8.89	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	25.34	28	0.91	1.23	0.22
Turnover Intention and Shock	(Combined)	44.35	12	3.70	5.91	0.00
	Linearity	40.99	1	40.99	65.56	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	3.35	11	0.31	0.49	0.91
Turnover Intention and Job Security	(Combined)	36.62	12	3.05	9.60	0.00
	Linearity	31.59	1	31.59	99.35	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	5.04	11	0.46	1.44	0.16

Table 2: Nonlinearity tests for job satisfaction and each of the distal determinants.

		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Job Satisfaction and Pay Satisfaction	(Combined)	36.63	12	3.05	9.60	0.00
	Linearity	31.59	1	31.59	99.35	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	5.04	11	0.46	1.44	0.16
Job Satisfaction and Autonomy	(Combined)	12.06	10	1.21	2.73	0.00
	Linearity	7.16	1	7.16	16.17	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	4.90	9	0.55	1.23	0.28
Job Satisfaction and Promotional Opportunity	(Combined)	24.82	16	1.55	4.02	0.00
	Linearity	18.18	1	18.18	47.12	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	6.64	15	0.44	1.15	0.32
Job Satisfaction and Distributive Justice	(Combined)	34.98	12	2.92	8.89	0.00
	Linearity	29.83	1	29.83	90.93	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	5.15	11	0.47	1.43	0.16
Job Satisfaction and Procedural Justice	(Combined)	18.37	15	1.23	2.93	0.06
	Linearity	13.80	1	13.80	33.01	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	4.57	14	0.33	0.78	0.69
Job Satisfaction and Co-worker Support	(Combined)	21.76	9	2.42	6.27	0.00
	Linearity	16.53	1	16.53	42.87	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	5.23	8	0.65	1.70	0.10
Job Satisfaction and Workgroup Cohesion	(Combined)	23.16	22	1.05	2.58	0.00
	Linearity	11.90	1	11.90	29.18	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	11.27	21	0.54	1.32	0.17
Job Satisfaction and Manager's Support	(Combined)	20.41	12	1.70	4.27	0.00
	Linearity	16.16	1	16.16	40.54	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	4.25	11	0.39	0.97	0.48

Job Satisfaction and Leader-Member Exchange	(Combined)	21.56	18	1.20	2.93	0.00
	Linearity	15.82	1	15.82	38.65	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	5.74	17	0.34	0.83	0.66

Table 3: Nonlinearity tests for affective organisational commitment and each of the distal determinants.

		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Affective organisational commitment and Pay Satisfaction	(Combined)	15.95	12	1.33	3.22	0.00
	Linearity	8.56	1	8.56	20.71	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	7.39	11	0.67	1.63	0.09
Affective organisational commitment and Autonomy	(Combined)	13.99	10	1.40	3.34	0.00
	Linearity	9.000	1	9.00	21.48	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	4.99	9	0.56	1.33	0.23
Affective organisational commitment and Promotional Opportunity	(Combined)	30.91	16	1.93	5.64	0.00
	Linearity	24.37	1	24.37	71.19	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	6.54	15	0.44	1.27	0.22
Affective organisational commitment and Distributive Justice	(Combined)	23.14	12	1.93	5.14	0.00
	Linearity	14.98	1	14.98	39.92	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	8.17	11	0.74	1.98	0.03
Affective organisational commitment and Procedural Justice	(Combined)	20.54	15	1.37	3.46	0.00
	Linearity	11.73	1	11.73	29.63	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	8.81	14	0.63	1.59	0.09
Affective organisational commitment and Co-worker Support	(Combined)	12.85	9	1.43	3.39	0.00
	Linearity	6.65	1	6.65	15.78	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	6.20	8	0.78	1.84	0.07
Affective organisational commitment and Workgroup Cohesion	(Combined)	13.80	22	0.63	1.40	0.12
	Linearity	4.77	1	4.77	10.62	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	9.03	21	0.43	0.56	0.52
Affective organisational commitment and Manager's Support	(Combined)	22.11	12	1.84	4.86	0.00
	Linearity	16.19	1	16.19	42.73	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	5.92	11	0.54	1.42	0.17
Affective organisational commitment and Leader-Member Exchange	(Combined)	18.22	18	1.01	2.50	0.00
	Linearity	9.91	1	9.91	24.48	0.00
	Deviation from linearity	8.32	17	0.49	1.21	0.26

Appendix II

The moderation effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intention is also examined using Hayes' (2013) PROCESS. The effect of the interaction between off-the-job embeddedness and shock on turnover intention is significant ($\beta = 0.17$; $p < 0.05$). The explained variance for turnover intention is 56%.

Process - moderation effect of off-the-job embeddedness on the relationship between shock and turnover intention.

Outcome: Turnover intention						
Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	Df1	Df2	p
0.75	.56	.39	13.34	15.00	185.00	.00
Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	5.36	0.66	8.18	0.00	4.07	6.66
Off-the-job embeddedness	-.01	.11	-.05	.96	-.22	-.21
Shock	.30	.05	5.69	.00	.20	.40
Int_1	.17	.08	2.05	0.04	0.01	0.32
Age	-.00	.01	-.31	.76	-.02	.01
Gender (female)	.06	.14	.42	.67	-.22	.34
Marital Status	-.07	.13	-.53	.59	-.33	.18
Tenure	.02	.01	1.09	.27	-.01	.04
Hospital 1	.10	.11	.88	.38	-.12	.32
Occupation (Admin)	.33	.18	1.86	.07	-.02	.68
Occupation (Doc)	.43	.22	1.87	.06	-.02	.87
Occupation (Nurse)	.44	.16	2.83	.01	.13	.75
Job Satisfaction	-.22	.10	-2.15	.03	-.41	-.02
Affective organisational commitment	-.33	.12	-2.81	.01	-.56	-.10
On-the-job embeddedness	-.25	.17	-1.48	.14	-.59	.08
Job Security	-.05	.10	-.46	.65	-.25	.15
Interactions:						
Int_1	Shock	X	Off-the-job embeddedness			

Appendix III- Why Expatriates Come to the UAE

Reasons why expatriates come to the UAE

Reason	Mean	SD
To explore new culture	4.05	.85
To find a good paying job	4.12	.75
To develop my skills	4.13	.75
To join my family	3.57	1.22
To enjoy the lifestyle in the UAE	3.81	.92

Appendix IV: Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Distributive justice and procedural justice:

Two-factor model:

Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 29.230

Degrees of freedom = 13

Probability level = .006

Estimates (Group number 1 – Default model)

Scalar Estimates (Group 1 – Default model)

Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
DisJustice3 <--- Distributive	1.000				
DisJustice2 <--- Distributive	1.592	.209	7.631	***	
DisJustice1 <--- Distributive	1.330	.177	7.533	***	
ProJustice4 <--- Procedural	1.000				
ProJustice3 <--- Procedural	.921	.062	14.880	***	
ProJustice2 <--- Procedural	.954	.063	15.128	***	
ProJustice1 <--- Procedural	.678	.058	11.628	***	

Standardised Regression Weights: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
DisJustice3 <--- Distributive	.533
DisJustice2 <--- Distributive	.900
DisJustice1 <--- Distributive	.815
ProJustice4 <--- Procedural	.871
ProJustice3 <--- Procedural	.838
ProJustice2 <--- Procedural	.847
ProJustice1 <--- Procedural	.712

Covariance: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Distributive <--> Procedural	.362	.067	5.440	***	

Correlations: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
Distributive <--> Procedural	.681

Variances: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Distributive	.378	.098	3.850	***	
Procedural	.750	.099	7.581	***	
e1	.954	.100	9.500	***	
e2	.224	.062	3.591	***	
e3	.338	.053	6.343	***	
e4	.238	.036	6.649	***	
e5	.271	.036	7.518	***	
e6	.269	.037	7.311	***	
e7	.336	.037	8.989	***	

Square Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
ProJustice1	.507
ProJustice2	.717
ProJustice3	.702
ProJustice4	.759
DisJustice1	.664
DisJustice2	.810
DisJustice3	.284

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	15	29.230	13	.006	2.248
Saturated model	28	.000	0		
Independent model	7	799.727	21	.000	38.082

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.036	.962	.918	.447
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independent model	.450	.372	.163	.279

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.963	.941	.979	.966	.979
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independent model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.619	.596	.606
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	16.230	4.252	35.915
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	778.727	689.972	874.885

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	.144	.080	.021	.177
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	3.940	3.836	3.399	4.310

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.078	.040	.117	.101
Independent model	.427	.402	.453	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	59.230	60.461	109.002	124.002
Saturated model	56.000	58.297	148.907	176.907
Independent model	813.727	814.301	836.954	843.954

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	.292	.233	.389	.298
Saturated model	.276	.276	.276	.287
Independent model	4.009	3.571	4.482	4.011

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	156	193
Independent model	9	10

Distributive justice and procedural justice:

One-factor model:

Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 134.428

Degrees of freedom = 14

Probability level = .000

Estimates (Group number 1 – Default model)

Scalar Estimates (Group 1 – Default model)

Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
ProJustice4 <--- Justice	1.000				
ProJustice3 <--- Justice	.897	.065	13.856	***	
ProJustice2 <--- Justice	.960	.065	14.824	***	
DisJustice3 <--- Justice	.566	.940	6.023	***	
DisJustice2 <--- Justice	.854	.080	10.655	***	
DisJustice1 <--- Justice	.740	.076	9.799	***	
ProJustice1 <--- Justice	.695	.059	11.729	***	

Standradised Regression Weights: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
ProJustice4 <--- Justice	.860
ProJustice3 <--- Justice	.806
ProJustice2 <--- Justice	.842
DisJustice3 <--- Justice	.420
DisJustice2 <--- Justice	.672
DisJustice1 <--- Justice	.631
ProJustice1 <--- Justice	.720

Variances: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Justice	.732	.098	7.454	***	
e1	.257	.036	7.081	***	
e2	.318	.039	8.137	***	
e3	.277	.037	7.508	***	
e4	.327	.037	8.962	***	
e5	1.097	.111	9.857	***	
e6	.648	.070	9.228	***	
e7	.606	.064	9.396	***	

Square Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
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DisJustice1	.398
DisJustice2	.452
DisJustice3	.176
ProJustice1	.519
ProJustice2	.709
ProJustice3	.650
ProJustice4	.740

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	14	134.428	14	.006	9.602
Saturated model	28	.000	0		
Independent model	7	799.727	21	.000	38.082

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.098	.827	.654	.414
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independent model	.450	.372	.163	.279

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.832	.748	.847	.768	.845
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independent model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.667	.555	.564
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	120.428	86.955	161.369
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	778.727	689.972	874.885

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	.662	.593	.428	.795

Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	3.940	3.836	3.399	4.310

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.206	.175	.238	.000
Independent model	.427	.402	.453	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	162.428	163.577	208.882	222.882
Saturated model	56.000	58.297	148.907	176.907
Independent model	813.727	814.301	836.954	843.954

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	.800	.635	1.002	.806
Saturated model	.276	.276	.276	.287
Independent model	4.009	3.571	4.482	4.011

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	36	45
Independent model	9	10

On- and off-the-job embeddedness:

Two-factor model:

Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 670.619

Degrees of freedom = 134

Probability level = .000

Estimates (Group number 1 – Default model)

Scalar Estimates (Group 1 – Default model)

Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Embeddedness15 <--- OnJobEmb	1.000				
Embeddedness14 <--- OnJobEmb	1.333	.336	3.967	***	
Embeddedness13 <--- OnJobEmb	1.986	.449	4.425	***	
Embeddedness9 <--- OnJobEmb	2.792	.593	4.708	***	
Embeddedness8 <--- OnJobEmb	1.778	.443	4.014	***	
Embeddedness7 <--- OnJobEmb	3.069	.655	4.689	***	
Embeddedness3 <--- OnJobEmb	2.551	.544	4.689	***	
Embeddedness2 <--- OnJobEmb	1.839	.407	4.515	***	
Embeddedness1 <--- OnJobEmb	1.920	.431	4.456	***	
Embeddedness18 <--- OffJobEmb	1.000				
Embeddedness17 <--- OffJobEmb	1.141	.307	3.717	***	
Embeddedness16 <--- OffJobEmb	1.169	.318	3.678	***	
Embeddedness12 <--- OffJobEmb	1.640	.358	4.587	***	
Embeddedness11 <--- OffJobEmb	1.486	.341	4.357	***	
Embeddedness10 <--- OffJobEmb	1.754	.374	4.687	***	
Embeddedness6 <--- OffJobEmb	1.865	.413	4.521	***	
Embeddedness5 <--- OffJobEmb	2.239	.452	4.954	***	
Embeddedness4 <--- OffJobEmb	2.256	.455	4.961	***	

Standardised Regression Weights: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
Embeddedness15 <--- OnJobEmb	.359
Embeddedness14 <--- OnJobEmb	.441
Embeddedness13 <--- OnJobEmb	.579
Embeddedness9 <--- OnJobEmb	.720
Embeddedness8 <--- OnJobEmb	.452
Embeddedness7 <--- OnJobEmb	.708
Embeddedness3 <--- OnJobEmb	.708
Embeddedness2 <--- OnJobEmb	.617
Embeddedness1 <--- OnJobEmb	.592
Embeddedness18 <--- OffJobEmb	.349
Embeddedness17 <--- OffJobEmb	.373
Embeddedness16 <--- OffJobEmb	.366
Embeddedness12 <--- OffJobEmb	.625
Embeddedness11 <--- OffJobEmb	.533
Embeddedness10 <--- OffJobEmb	.676
Embeddedness6 <--- OffJobEmb	.595
Embeddedness5 <--- OffJobEmb	.884
Embeddedness4 <--- OffJobEmb	.892

Covariance: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
OnJobEmb <--> OffJobEmb	.056	.018	3.174	.002	

Correlations: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
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OnJobEmb <--> OffJobEmb	.606
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Variances: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
OnJobEmb	.059	.024	2.448	.014	
OffJobEmb	.147	.060	2.455	.014	
e1	.397	.040	9.822	***	
e2	.432	.045	9.661	***	
e3	.457	.050	9.205	***	
e4	.423	.052	8.208	***	
e5	.720	.075	9.634	***	
e6	.549	.066	8.337	***	
e7	.379	.045	8.335	***	
e8	.322	.036	9.014	***	
e9	.400	.044	9.146	***	
e10	1.066	.107	9.945	***	
e11	1.186	.120	9.923	***	
e12	1.304	.131	9.930	***	
e13	.620	.065	9.468	***	
e14	.820	.085	9.700	***	
e15	.540	.058	9.274	***	
e16	.934	.098	9.555	***	
e17	.207	.032	6.470	***	
e18	.193	.031	6.177	***	

Square Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
Embeddedness4	.795
Embeddedness5	.781
Embeddedness6	.354
Embeddedness10	.457
Embeddedness11	.284
Embeddedness12	.390
Embeddedness16	.134
Embeddedness17	.139
Embeddedness18	.121
Embeddedness1	.351
Embeddedness2	.381
Embeddedness3	.501
Embeddedness7	.501
Embeddedness8	.204
Embeddedness9	.519
Embeddedness13	.336
Embeddedness14	.194
Embeddedness15	.129

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	37	670.619	134	.000	5.005
Saturated model	171	.000	0		
Independent model	18	1782.808	153	.000	11.652

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.100	.711	.632	.558
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independent model	.295	.358	.283	.321

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.624	.571	.675	.624	.671
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independent model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.876	.546	.587
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	536.619	459.516	621.241
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	1629.808	1497.578	1769.443

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	3.304	2.643	2.264	3.060
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	8.782	8.029	7.377	8.716

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.140	.130	.151	.000
Independent model	.229	.220	.239	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	744.619	752.260	867.389	904.389
Saturated model	342.000	377.315	909.399	1080.399
Independent model	1818.808	1822.525	1878.534	1896.534

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	3.668	3.288	4.085	3.706
Saturated model	1.685	1.685	1.685	1.859
Independent model	8.960	8.308	9.648	8.978

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	50	53
Independent model	21	23

On- and off-the-job embeddedness:

One-factor model:

Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 851.819

Degrees of freedom = 135

Probability level = .000

Estimates (Group number 1 – Default model)

Scalar Estimates (Group 1 – Default model)

Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Embeddedness18 <--- Embeddedness	1.000				
Embeddedness17 <--- Embeddedness	1.089	.238	4.577	***	
Embeddedness16 <--- Embeddedness	1.055	.241	4.368	***	
Embeddedness15 <--- Embeddedness	.491	.126	3.906	***	
Embeddedness14 <--- Embeddedness	.630	.144	4.369	***	
Embeddedness13 <--- Embeddedness	.975	.187	5.201	***	
Embeddedness12 <--- Embeddedness	1.394	.250	5.587	***	
Embeddedness11 <--- Embeddedness	1.271	.243	5.227	***	
Embeddedness10 <--- Embeddedness	1.467	.256	5.724	***	

Embeddedness9 <--- Embeddedness	1.184	.220	5.375	***	
Embeddedness8 <--- Embeddedness	.938	.198	4.744	***	
Embeddedness7 <--- Embeddedness	1.365	.251	5.448	***	
Embeddedness6 <--- Embeddedness	1.515	.282	5.370	***	
Embeddedness5 <--- Embeddedness	1.592	.268	5.935	***	
Embeddedness4 <--- Embeddedness	1.632	.273	5.984	***	
Embeddedness3 <--- Embeddedness	.907	.186	4.886	***	
Embeddedness2 <--- Embeddedness	.602	.140	4.286	***	
Embeddedness1 <--- Embeddedness	.644	.152	4.238	***	

Standardised Regression Weights: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
Embeddedness18 <--- Embeddedness	.428
Embeddedness17 <--- Embeddedness	.437
Embeddedness16 <--- Embeddedness	.405
Embeddedness15 <--- Embeddedness	.343
Embeddedness14 <--- Embeddedness	.405
Embeddedness13 <--- Embeddedness	.554
Embeddedness12 <--- Embeddedness	.651
Embeddedness11 <--- Embeddedness	.560
Embeddedness10 <--- Embeddedness	.694
Embeddedness9 <--- Embeddedness	.595
Embeddedness8 <--- Embeddedness	.465
Embeddedness7 <--- Embeddedness	.613
Embeddedness6 <--- Embeddedness	.593
Embeddedness5 <--- Embeddedness	.771
Embeddedness4 <--- Embeddedness	.791
Embeddedness3 <--- Embeddedness	.490
Embeddedness2 <--- Embeddedness	.393
Embeddedness1 <--- Embeddedness	.386

Variances: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Embeddedness	.222	.073	3.046	.002	
e1	.992	.101	9.833	***	
e2	1.115	.114	9.819	***	
e3	1.258	.128	9.863	***	
e4	.402	.040	9.931	***	
e5	.448	.045	9.862	***	
e6	.477	.050	9.596	***	
e7	.585	.063	9.275	***	
e8	.787	.082	9.581	***	
e9	.516	.057	9.068	***	
e10	.569	.060	9.482	***	
e11	.710	.073	9.777	***	
e12	.687	.073	9.422	***	
e13	.938	.099	9.486	***	
e14	.384	.045	8.480	***	

e15	.353	.043	8.250	***	
e16	.577	.059	9.733	***	
e17	.439	.044	9.877	***	
e18	.524	.053	9.885	***	

Square Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
Embeddedness1	.149
Embeddedness2	.155
Embeddedness3	.240
Embeddedness4	.626
Embeddedness5	.594
Embeddedness6	.352
Embeddedness7	.376
Embeddedness8	.216
Embeddedness9	.353
Embeddedness10	.481
Embeddedness11	.313
Embeddedness12	.424
Embeddedness13	.307
Embeddedness14	.164
Embeddedness15	.118
Embeddedness16	.164
Embeddedness17	.191
Embeddedness18	.183

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	36	851.819	135	.000	6.310
Saturated model	171	.000	0		
Independent model	18	1782.808	153	.000	11.652

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.097	.661	.571	.522
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independent model	.295	.358	.283	.321

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.522	.458	.565	.502	.560
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000

Independent model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
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Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.882	.461	.494
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	716.819	628.395	812.730
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	1629.808	1497.578	1769.443

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	4.196	3.531	3.096	4.004
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	8.782	8.029	7.377	8.716

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.162	.151	.172	.000
Independent model	.229	.220	.239	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	923.819	931.254	1043.272	1079.272
Saturated model	342.000	377.315	909.399	1080.399
Independent model	1818.808	1822.525	1878.534	1896.534

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	4.551	4.115	5.023	4.587
Saturated model	1.685	1.685	1.685	1.859
Independent model	8.960	8.308	9.648	8.978

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	39	42
Independent model	21	23

On- and off-the-job embeddedness:

One-factor model:

Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 307.150

Degrees of freedom = 120

Probability level = .000

Estimates (Group number 1 – Default model)

Scalar Estimates (Group 1 – Default model)

Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Embeddedness21 <--- OnFit	1.000				
Embeddedness20 <--- OnFit	.875	.098	4.577	***	
Embeddedness19 <--- OnFit	.902	.105	4.368	***	
Embeddedness33 <--- OnLinks	1.000				
Embeddedness32 <--- OnLinks	1.319	.153	8.610	***	
Embeddedness31 <--- OnLinks	1.355	.162	8.384	***	
Embeddedness27 <--- OnSacrifice	1.000				
Embeddedness26 <--- OnSacrifice	.636	.100	6.357	***	
Embeddedness25 <--- OnSacrifice	1.095	.110	9.959	***	
Embeddedness24 <--- OffFit	1.000				
Embeddedness23 <--- OffFit	1.340	.151	8.885	***	
Embeddedness22 <--- OffFit	1.344	.151	8.892	***	
Embeddedness30 <--- OffSacrifice	1.000				
Embeddedness29 <--- OffSacrifice	1.005	.087	11.522	***	
Embeddedness28 <--- OffSacrifice	.882	.081	10.843	***	
Embeddedness36 <--- OffLinks	1.000				
Embeddedness35 <--- OffLinks	1.049	.160	6.567	***	
Embeddedness34 <--- OffLinks	.910	.156	5.820	***	

Standardised Regression Weights: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
Embeddedness21 <--- OnFit	.713
Embeddedness20 <--- OnFit	.754
Embeddedness19 <--- OnFit	.714
Embeddedness33 <--- OnLinks	.672
Embeddedness32 <--- OnLinks	.816
Embeddedness31 <--- OnLinks	.741
Embeddedness27 <--- OnSacrifice	.767
Embeddedness26 <--- OnSacrifice	.480

Embeddedness25 <--- OnSacrifice	.751
Embeddedness24 <--- OffFit	.561
Embeddedness23 <--- OffFit	.929
Embeddedness22 <--- OffFit	.933
Embeddedness30 <--- OffSacrifice	.831
Embeddedness29 <--- OffSacrifice	.787
Embeddedness28 <--- OffSacrifice	.742
Embeddedness36 <--- OffLinks	.656
Embeddedness35 <--- OffLinks	.646
Embeddedness34 <--- OffLinks	.536

Covariance: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
OnFit < -- > OnLinks	.130	.030	4.295	***	
OnFit < -- > OnSacrifice	.340	.056	6.191	***	
OnFit < -- > OffFit	.152	.041	3.694	***	
OnFit < -- > OffSacrifice	.142	.048	2.958	.003	
OnFit < -- > OffLinks	.114	.047	2.437	.015	
OnLinks < -- > OnSacrifice	.137	.034	4.065	***	
OnLinks < -- > OffFit	.126	.031	4.014	***	
OnLinks < -- > OffSacrifice	.152	.037	4.087	***	
OnLinks < -- > OffLinks	.125	.036	3.461	***	
OnSacrifice < -- > OffFit	.299	.058	5.184	***	
OnSacrifice < -- > OffSacrifice	.280	.060	4.678	***	
OnSacrifice < -- > OffLinks	.305	.063	4.808	***	
OffFit < -- > OffSacrifice	.359	.066	5.454	***	
OffFit < -- > OffLinks	.211	.054	3.893	***	
OffSacrifice < -- > OffLinks	.405	.074	5.455	***	

Correlations: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
OnFit < -- > OnLinks	.460
OnFit < -- > OnSacrifice	.782
OnFit < -- > OffFit	.362
OnFit < -- > OffSacrifice	.272
OnFit < -- > OffLinks	.254
OnLinks < -- > OnSacrifice	.421
OnLinks < -- > OffFit	.412
OnLinks < -- > OffSacrifice	.399
OnLinks < -- > OffLinks	.381
OnSacrifice < -- > OffFit	.616
OnSacrifice < -- > OffSacrifice	.464
OnSacrifice < -- > OffLinks	.587
OffFit < -- > OffSacrifice	.635
OffFit < -- > OffLinks	.433
OffSacrifice < -- > OffLinks	.668

Variances: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
OnFit	.386	.073	35.288	***	
OnLinks	.205	.042	4.875	***	
OnSacrifice	.517	.088	5.905	***	
OffFit	.455	.108	4.225	***	
OffSacrifice	.703	.104	6.752	***	
OffLinks	.523	.119	4.378	***	
e1	.374	.049	7.630	***	
e2	.224	.032	6.936	***	
e3	.302	.040	7.615	***	
e4	.250	.031	8.055	***	
e5	.179	.035	5.165	***	
e6	.311	.045	6.944	***	
e7	.362	.051	7.060	***	
e8	.696	.073	9.494	***	
e9	.480	.065	7.380	***	
e10	.992	.102	9.749	***	
e11	.130	.032	4.114	***	
e12	.122	.031	3.887	***	
e13	.314	.051	6.166	***	
e14	.436	.061	7.214	***	
e15	.447	.056	7.958	***	
e16	.691	.096	7.219	***	
e17	.802	.109	7.374	***	
e18	1.072	.125	8.593	***	

Square Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 –Default model)

	Estimate
Embeddedness16	.288
Embeddedness17	.418
Embeddedness18	.431
Embeddedness10	.550
Embeddedness11	.619
Embeddedness12	.691
Embeddedness4	.871
Embeddedness5	.863
Embeddedness6	.314
Embeddedness7	.563
Embeddedness8	.231
Embeddedness9	.588
Embeddedness13	.548
Embeddedness14	.666
Embeddedness15	.451
Embeddedness1	.510
Embeddedness2	.569

Embeddedness3	.508
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Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	51	307.150	120	.000	2.560
Saturated model	171	.000	0		
Independent model	18	1782.808	153	.000	11.652

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.068	.864	.806	.606
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independent model	.295	.358	.283	.321

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.828	.780	.887	.854	.885
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independent model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.784	.649	.694
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	187.150	139.225	242.754
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	1629.808	1497.578	1769.443

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	1.513	.922	.686	1.196
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independent model	8.782	8.029	7.377	8.716

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.088	.076	.100	.000
Independent model	.229	.220	.239	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	409.150	419.682	578.374	629.374
Saturated model	342.000	377.315	909.399	1080.399
Independent model	1818.808	1822.525	1878.534	1896.534

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	2.016	1.779	2.289	2.067
Saturated model	1.685	1.685	1.685	1.859
Independent model	8.960	8.308	9.648	8.978

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	97	106
Independent model	21	23

Appendix V- Harman's One-Factor Test

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.66	39.15	39.15	6.66	39.15	39.15
2	1.44	8.47	47.62			
3	1.34	7.90	55.52			
4	1.22	7.20	62.72			
5	.99	5.81	68.53			
6	.85	4.98	73.52			
7	.75	4.41	77.92			
8	.65	3.83	81.75			
9	.59	3.46	85.21			
10	.53	3.11	88.32			
11	.42	2.45	90.77			
12	.38	2.20	92.97			
13	.30	1.76	94.73			
14	.28	1.62	96.35			
15	.23	1.35	97.69			
16	.22	1.27	98.97			
17	.18	1.03	100.00			

Component Matrix

	Component 1
Job Satisfaction	.69
Pay Satisfaction	.70
Distributive Justice	.77
Autonomy	.33
Promotion Opportunity	.70
Co-worker Support	.55
Workgroup Cohesion	.60
Manager Support	.75
Leader-Member Exchange	.71
Affective organisational commitment	.63
Procedural Justice	.76
On-the-Job Embeddedness	.76
Off-the-Job Embeddedness	.28
Quit Intention	-.74
Shock	-.50
Alternative Opportunities	-.50
Job Security	0.32

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